KNOWLEDGE CREATION IN A CROSS CULTURAL CONTEXT FOR SUSTAINABLE ORGANISATION CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT

by

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Abstract

The central theme of this doctoral research is organisational knowledge creation in the cross cultural context of the post-socialist transition of former Eastern European (EE) countries towards a more liberal market structure and methods of working. This transition was particularly important for those countries seeking European Union (EU) accession such as Romania, and impacted on those organisations having a major role in accession such as the Romanian Border Police (RBP). The need for organisations to expand their knowledge of strategic decision making for change and development resulted in a plethora of EU-funded training interventions to fill the gap. The literature suggests that as a result of the dominance of Western ideology of the transitional process, cognitive dissonance and a general disconnect with the outcomes of EU-funded projects was a product of such interventions.

This research explores how a more collaborative co-inquiry methodology with partners can bring about knowledge creation as a more sustainable and significant approach for organisational change. Specifically, it investigates the reflective capabilities of a group of Romanian Border Police (RBP) managers to reveal how they can create knowledge for organisational change and development in preparation for EU accession. Simultaneously a framework for facilitation was developed as a result of using the original research of Geppert and Clark (2002) and Breiter and Scardamalia (2000), as a foundation for the operationalisation of the research and in the attempt to move away from traditional models of knowledge transfer to further develop the changing dimensions of training interventions in the EE as suggested by Michaelova and Hollinshead (2007). It is offered as a purposeful method for the sustainable organisation, in preference to western style knowledge transfer projects.

The findings result in a complex model of knowledge creation for the RBP and a better understanding of how Western trainers can work with EE organisations to achieve the desired outcomes for developing organisations. Moreover recommendations are made on how the EU can best utilise this research as a basis

for funding future knowledge transfer projects, to guarantee that funding is having an impact on developing organisations at a time of austerity.

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Abbreviations

ANUC	National Alliance of the Creator's Union
CC's	Candidate Countries
CDR	Romanian Democratic Convention
CEE	Central and Eastern Europe
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
EE	Eastern Europe
EET	Eastern European Time
EU	European Union
FRONTEX	'Frontieres Exterieures' (External Borders)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIBP	General Inspectorate of the Border Police
HR	Human Resources
HRD	Human Resource Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IT	Information Technology
JHA	Justice and Home Affairs
KBC	Knowledge Building Community
KM	Knowledge Management
KT	Knowledge Transfer
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NIRDI	National Institute for Research and Development in Informatics
NSF	Nation Salvation Front
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification
OCD	Organisation Change and Development
OCED	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OD	Organisation Development
OSCE	Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe
PCR	Romanian Communist Party
PDSR	Party of Social Democracy of Romania
PHARE	Poland and Hungary: Assistance for Restructuring their Economies
PIU	PHARE Implementation Unit

PSD	Social Democratic Party
RBP	Romanian Border Police
SIS	Schengen Information Systems
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
USA	United States of America
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
UWBS	University of Wolverhampton Business School

CHAPTER ONE

The Research Context and the Romanian Border Police.

1.1 Introduction

This thesis proposes a new paradigm for facilitating the dynamic aspects of an organisational knowledge creating process in a cross cultural context. Its central theme is that of organisational knowledge creation, through training and development resulting in a theoretical framework which provides an analytical perspective on the constituent dimensions of knowledge creation, and proffers this as a purposeful method for achieving sustainable organisation change and development, in preference to Western-style knowledge transfer projects.

In 2007 Romania became a member of the European Union (EU). Leading up to accession Romania implemented a number of reforms in preparation for EU accession. One of the most important moves was the acknowledgement of human rights, and the commitment to freedom of expression. Other reforms included the consolidation of its democratic systems, the institution of the rule of law, and the implementation of a free market economy (Steger 2003, Lord and Wittrup 2005). One of the most important organisations at the heart of future good governance in the country is the Romanian Border Police (RBP). Its reform and move to a more democratic and transparent way of working, and therefore the management of its human resources, was part of the EU's entry requirement as well as the necessary condition to control its own internal labour market policies, resulting in efforts to 'train' managers on a large scale through funding from the EU using traditional UK/USA models of management and training.

The reforms exposed a glaring deficit in management knowledge on strategic decision making for change and development, and a need to expand general management skills (Kozminski and Yip 2000, Kuchinke 2008). This resulted in a plethora of EU-funded training interventions. These have largely failed, doing more harm than good (Hollinshead and Michailova 2001, Bedward, Jankowicz, and Rexworthy 2003). Subsequently a second wave of interventions was started with a more culturally-sensitive and self-aware model of training. This case study research

that focuses on an EU funded knowledge transfer intervention with Romanian Border Police managers is concerned simultaneously with tracing the development of such a programme, and the actual training and research associated with the training process and outcomes.

This thesis therefore explores the reflective capabilities of the RBP managers to reveal how they can create knowledge for sustainable organisation change and development in preparation for EU accession. Simultaneously a conceptual process model for facilitation emerged using the original research of Geppert and Clark (2002) and Bereiter and Scardamalia (2002) as a foundation for the ideas, and thus moving away from traditional models of knowledge transfer to postulate a different dimension of training interventions in Eastern Europe (EE) as proposed by Michaelova and Hollinshead (2009). This research departs from the claims of existing literature on the effectiveness of knowledge transfer from the West to EE. It takes a more radical view on how collaborative co-inquiry with partners can bring about knowledge creation as a more sustainable and significant approach for organisational change. The research also demonstrates, through the literature, the ineffectiveness of traditional EU-funded knowledge transfer projects.

The findings result in a conceptual process model of knowledge creation for the RBP, and a better understanding of how the EU and pre-accessed states can work together to achieve the desired outcomes for developing management of an organisation. Moreover, recommendations are made on how the EU can best utilise this research as a basis for funding future knowledge transfer projects, to guarantee that funding is having an impact on developing management of organisations at a time of austerity.

In the 1990's during the early stages of the post-socialist transition, managers in former Eastern Block countries wishing to join the EU became aware of the sudden need to adapt to more liberal market structures of management. This exposed a glaring deficit in knowledge on strategic decision making, and general management skills. A notable study on the problematic nature of knowledge transfer from West to EE was covered by May, Puffer and McCarthy (2005), who examined the transfer

of US-managerial knowledge in Russia in the 1990s. The literature overwhelmingly demonstrates a failing of Western knowledge transfer programmes to understand the needs of post-socialist (Eastern European and ex-communist) organisations in the process of change and development (Michailova and Hollingshead 2001, Geppert and Clark 2004, Soulsby and Clark 2007, Michailova and Hollinshead 2009). Indeed much of the criticism aimed at 'funded knowledge transfer programmes' emanate from PHARE (Poland and Hungary: Assistance for Restructuring their Economies) funding, the assistance for non-accession countries (as was the case for Romania when this research began). PHARE became the world's largest assistance programme (Pusca 2003), and was initiated by the EU in 1989 to facilitate the transition to a so-called market economy in Poland and Hungary, later extending to other Central Eastern European (CEE) countries. This became increasingly relevant to EU applicant countries and the RBP, where the priorities identified by Romania had to be linked to the need to comply with EU requirements (Botheral 1999).

Much of the early literature on cross-cultural management is subsumed within the general considerations of the transition process in Central and Eastern Europe as a whole (Auerbach and Stone, 1991; McNulty and Katkov, 1992; Shama, 1993; Perlaki, 1994; Lane, 1995; Lee et al 1996; Bateman 1997). Recent literature has shifted the focus from management development to the process of knowledge transfer and a questioning of the effectiveness of early management training interventions. The authors cited in the literature review on the creation of knowledge (Geppert and Clark 2003; Holden, 2001, 2002, Holden *et al*., 2004; Iles et al., 2004, Michailova and Hutchings 2006), very much influenced the early thinking for this research.

There are, however, several other writers who can claim some credence for shaping the ideas of this research. Research on the effectiveness of Western management development programmes in transitional economies conducted mainly by Michailova and Hollingshead (2001) gave an original framework of ideas. Their research on Western Management training in the 'new Europe' resulted in the examination of the effectiveness of knowledge transfer in Bulgarian and Russian organisations. Three case studies were developed over a ten year period. Michailova and Hollingshead developed a framework based on Perlmutters (1969)

model for developing multinational companies. Perlmutter designed a typology for the development of business strategy. Three perspectives or themes were developed through his research based on knowledge transfer, namely ethnocentric, polycentric and geocentric models. Michailova and Hollingshead conducted their research using the Perlmutter framework primarily for the purpose of analogy. Their research explored the process of 'international travel of ideas' from West to East and concluded with the assertion that newer training interventions are selected on the basis of economic potential and ideological consonance with Western versions of capitalism. The move towards empowerment to locals in the field of international training is modest. They furthered their research (2009) by tracing developments with both transmitters (training organisations, including British Universities), and receivers (beneficiaries of the training), and thus departed from previous studies concerning Western training interventions in post-socialist EE (Gilbert and Gorlenko 1999, Jankowicz 2001, Hollinshead and Michailova 2001, and Bedward, Jankowicz, and Rexworthy 2003).

The research conducted by Michailova and Hollinshead tracks the changes in design and implementation of Western management (UK/USA) training interventions in Eastern Europe over a period of more than a decade. The study is based empirically on three management development programmes conducted mainly by British Business Schools, in the transitional environments of Bulgaria and Russia from 1992 to 2003. Table 1.1 tracks the development of the thinking behind the design and implementation of the Western training interventions, and summarises the most important changes. This table was extracted from their finding of research into three major internationally-funded projects or cases. The purpose for including it in this chapter is not only to highlight the changing dimensions of Western management training since the early 2000's, but more significantly to postulate and demonstrate empirically an extra dimension in table 1.1, dimension 12, following on from their developed dimension 11. A framework is developed for dimension 12 for managers to create knowledge, being neither transmitters nor receivers, but creators. The changing dimensions are findings of research carried out in a Bulgarian context, but the same can be said for Romania who achieved EU

accession at the same time as Bulgaria and also released a set of tenders for organisation development through PHARE funding. Furthermore this research moves the debate on from the early 2000's into the late 2000's.

Previous studies have dealt almost exclusively with programmes already designed by the West ready for transferring as highlighted in Michailova and Hollinshead's research, rather than focusing on their suitability and transferability. The literature therefore tends to concentrate on the technical description of how a project is developed, paying no attention to its relevance or usefulness to the organisation.

What is interesting about their research is the acknowledgment of the importance of knowledge in the training process as a recent development. As seen from the table it is recorded that participants co-organise their learning experience and identify with new knowledge. Previously knowledge was seen as remote from the interests of the recipients or not applicable. This is likely to be the result of the many failing projects and the requirement to design 'programmes comprising of representatives from leading Business Schools in cooperation with local experts'. In the case of the RBP it would be impossible to design a context-specific training programme without the contribution of local experts. The local experts in this research are the fourteen managers introduced later in the chapter.

Specifically the focus for the research is knowledge creation in a cross-cultural context. Most of the reading, and contemplation prior to this research was concerned with questions on how to create and disseminate 'actionable knowledge' in an organisational context (Argyris 1993, xi). This has been discussed in the context of the role of a Business School for a number of years (Kuchinke, 2008). It is widely known however that the study of knowledge management, knowledge creation and transfer does not yet have the legitimacy that only rigorous academic research can provide (Stankosky, 2005).

Table 1.1 Changing dimensions of Western management training in EE

	Dimension	Early–mid-1990s	Late 1990s–early 2000s
1	Members of consortium	Western business schools	Western business schools and international management consultancy based in Bulgaria
		Western multinational corporations and business schools	Intensified cooperation between the Western consortium and a local business school with the intention of Russians taking over the project completely
2	Features of programme design	Programme designed exclusively by Western consortia comprising representatives from leading business schools	Programme designed by Western consortia comprisin representatives from leading business schools in cooperation with local experts
3	Objectives	To provide Western managerial know-how to Bulgarian managers in companies under the Ministry of Industry in the privatization stage	To analyse and apply international business theories and practices; to discuss how different factors affect business efficiency; to develop business contacts; to increase business between Russia and participating Western countries
4	Participating organizations' selection	Wide-ranging representation including companies, ministries, and municipalities; private and state-owned sector; no specific requirements regarding the company's financial condition and future prospects	Solely corporate representation selected on the basis of criteria including current financial condition, prospects, strengths and opportunities, calibre of company management, risks associated with the company
			Companies with established connections with the Western consortium and their suppliers, customers, etc.
5	Individual participant's selection	No limitations regarding participants' age; no knowledge of English required; no testing of relevance of management experience	Age is highly significant: exclusion of people above age of 45; knowledge of English is essential; formal evaluation of managerial competence and potential
6	Trainers	Exclusively Western	Main deliverers are Bulgarians; Westerners acting as mentors and facilitators
7	Content	Curriculum based on a wide range of Western undergraduate business disciplines	Indicative topic areas subsequently related to clients' specific problems
8	Nature of knowledge diffused	Procedural: knowledge diffused is remote from the interests of recipients or not applicable	EE participants co-organize their learning experiences and identify personally with new knowledge
9	Delivery methods	Classroom teaching in episodic three to four day courses	Consultancy based; Western experts placed in the field; study tours in the West
			Internships for participants outside Russia and company based change projects
10	Language	All sessions conducted through translator	Programme conducted in English
		Sessions conducted through simultaneous translation	Simultaneous translation of English language sessions increasing number of sessions delivered by Russians in Russian
11	Post-programme activity	None	Active Alumni Club

Source:Michailova and Hollinshead (2009:124)

The concern in actively engaging with theories and theorists from other areas was not merely to create new conceptualisations of knowledge creation for organisational development and change but also to broaden and problematise HRD analytic practice. This is even more significant given the context in which this has been achieved. Moreover, in part, this thesis will demonstrate the attempt to forge a particular kind of relationship with the RBP managers based on trust and collaboration. It is an engagement that is situated, and attempts to discern a 'non-binary world'. The intention is to move away from the kind of empirical/analytic abstract theory which dilutes meaning by ignoring human context, giving a blinkered view. The original idea for the research came from working collaboratively with managers in a Romanian organisation, on questions to do with organisational change and development (OCD), and was drawn out of a commitment to facilitate sustainable OCD for an organisation in Eastern Europe, in a country struggling to gain EU accession. Caution was taken in the approach to this research after reading literature on the failings of EU-funded projects to genuinely assist accession countries (organisations) in their transition. This research opportunity and its contribution ought to make an impact on established practice, by developing a new approach, and this is where it begins.

1.2 Background to EU Funded Projects Relating to Romania and the RBP

The imperative for the RBP management was gaining 'know how' on how to develop a strategy for change, by being able to;

1. Recognise areas of the organisation in need of change
2. Develop strategies for achieving change
3. Have knowledge of implementing change.

The catalyst for change, and a significant influence impacting greatly on cross-cultural knowledge transfer in the EU came in 1999 when at the Tampere summit the European Council's focus of discussion was on Justice and Home Affairs (JHA) as one of the most important policies. The key polices for ensuring EU security had already been established as the main JHA objectives. These were, 'common EU asylum and migration policy, a genuine area of justice, a Union wide fight against

crime, a stronger external action' (EU Commissioner Directorate General JHA, factsheet 3. 2002:2). The proposals made by the individual member states at this summit reached over two hundred different legislative measures to be adopted over the following five to ten years (Monar 2001). This included new policing initiatives such as this introduction of joint investigative teams in cross-border areas for countering terrorism and drug/people trafficking, and the establishment of a European police chiefs' operational task force, and a European police college. Shortly after Tampere the EU policy on organised crime expanded its policy instruments and especially the cooperation with those with non-EU countries (including Romania at the time). The external dimension of the JHA was one of the four key objectives from Tampere and stated;

> '*Much cross border crime also crosses the external borders of the EU and of neighbouring countries. The EU and its law enforcement agencies must therefore not only play an active part in the international bodies like the UN. The council of Europe, OSCE, and OCED but also in cooperating with neighbouring countries of origin (from which drugs, illegal immigrants come), and countries of transit (through which drugs, illegal immigrants and stolen goods are transported). The object is to stop this and illegal immigrants entering the European Union and cooperate with neighbouring countries'……* (EU Commissioner Directorate General JHA, factsheet 3. 2002:3)

With the development of the JHA and the main policy focus of border crime Eastern Enlargement of the EU was inevitable. The EU saw Romania and the Romanian Border Police as having a major role in the future security of the EU. The task of the JHA relations between the EU applicant countries aimed at helping them establish their policies with regard to, *inter alia,* organised crime and other JHA issues. One of the most significant developments during the accession period, and relevant to this research was the remarkable growth of initiatives on fighting organised crime in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE), and the training required to accommodate these. The *modus operandi* in all applicant countries was as follows (Gachevska 2005:32-37):

1. Speeding up legislation on organised crime
2. Setting up various agencies for the implementation of new legislation
3. Training the personnel of these agencies
4. Creation of a system for data collection, through training and provision of equipment, and establishing contact points for exchange of information with EU law enforcement.

The RBP were responsible for the *modus operandi* of the points above and were assisted in developing the skills to achieve this through the research carried out, not in the technical aspects of border policing, but on how to bring about change through an organisation knowledge forum, and facilitate the creation of new knowledge. In particular point three has greater relevance for this research, as some of the funding accessed came through PHARE to enable this.

However, facilitating the points above as purported by the JHA was in practice much more complex than at first anticipated. In the case of Romania, linking the development agenda to membership demanded priority be given to JHA policies as prescribed by the EU, such as changes in criminal law with a focus on fighting organised crime. In the light of the EU's JHA directives the RBP's modernisation strategy had a main focus being specifically that of crime involving border security, and understandably so as Romania is landlocked by Hungary, Serbia, Bulgaria, Ukraine and Moldova. There is a section of Black Sea coast on the East side of the Country. The strategy also strongly identified a drive in the training of staff in EU legislation, organisational development, human resource management, human resource development, and logistics. Romania has a strategic geographical position in Europe of particular importance to the EU and Schengen. First, it is situated at the crossroads of two major routes of world migration, from Africa in the south and Asia in the east. Second it has a long Eastern border with the Republic of Moldova and the Ukraine both former Soviet states. This eastern border has now become an external EU border with Romania's accession to the EU in 2007. In recent years there have been increased incidents in cross-border crime, in particular, illegal migration, drug trafficking, and weapons smuggling. One of Romania's major goals

of accession was achieving security of its national border, as well as strengthening border surveillance and control. Security of the Romanian borders was therefore the most important aspect for EU accession. This single aspect emphasises the importance of this doctoral research in assisting the RBP on 'know how' in creating new knowledge for the development of strategies to address this.

According to Dobryninas (2005) writing on a study of Lithuania's Anti-Corruption policy, the PHARE funded projects were problematic as they often clashed with local, cultural, political or institutional problems: 'from the outside it looked like a chaotic process rather than a seriously grounded national policy' (2005:77-79). According to the research carried out by a British team of academics on the impact of the JHA on applicant countries, there was no unified agreement on the definition of organised crime requirements, and interpretations were largely ambiguous (Rawlinson 2005). In the absence of an agreement on common definitions, training was futile and the recipients of PHARE funding were critical of the shortcomings of the initiatives, the duplication of training programmes, and the inability by member states to appreciate the problems newly democratic countries faced in the establishment of good governance. This led to questions about the role and purpose of PHARE, and suspicion over EU expenditure. The 'twinning strategy' set up in 1998 as a key area for the JHA facilitated capacity building or institution building through the interaction with EU experts in a joint attempt to improve the structure and systems for managing resources and developing management skills for change (Eurostat 2011).

In summary, the research notes the failings of PHARE-funded knowledge transfer programmes to assist accession countries. British and US management models, methods, tools and the techniques introduced have not been understood or transferred easily into a post-communist, ex-military structure. This was confirmed by the RBP managers. The main reason cited was that cultural differences inhibited this. The need is to problematise the failings by closing the gap and developing a new framework for facilitating knowledge creation, to overcome the easy solution of using traditional methods of knowledge transfer through didactic training.

1.3 Framework: Developing a Model of Knowledge Creation Across Cultures

To address the failings of the PHARE business and management transfer programmes a new approach was implemented with the RBP using the ideas of Geppert and Clark (2003). They argue that there is a need for more research into the actual social processes of cross-cultural knowledge transfer and management learning, in order to examine how managers go about restructuring, redefining, and sharing knowledge within the various media of knowledge transfer. Managers play a significant role in creating and structuring the 'social space' in which a new knowledge transfer venture/collaboration takes place. They outline the theoretical contours of this position, what they term a preliminary map of the main theoretical relationships between knowledge transfer and organisational learning processes within transnational ventures. These theoretical contours are used as a basis for examining the relationship with the RBP managers and to illustrate the emergent conceptual model of knowledge transfer into knowledge creation.

Five sets of factors are identified by Geppert and Clark which offer a useful starting point for developing new concepts and more nuanced understandings of knowledge creation;

1. The first factor places importance on the national, economic, and institutional culture. These have a considerable impact on the process of knowledge transfer. As already mentioned the cultural context for this research is typical of an Eastern European state organisation – high power distance and collectivist (Hofstede 2001). This ultimately affects how knowledge is restructured and redefined, as further explained in chapter four on culture.
2. The collaborators: the second factor in the knowledge transfer process is the facilitator and the ethnocentric managers, which assume a monopoly of appropriate knowledge and skills. The ideas of Michailova and Hollingshead (2001) are also of relevance here. They use the ideas of a 'paradigm shift' in knowledge transfer from ethnocentricity to polycentricity, which vests primary responsibility for learning and training with indigenous managers,

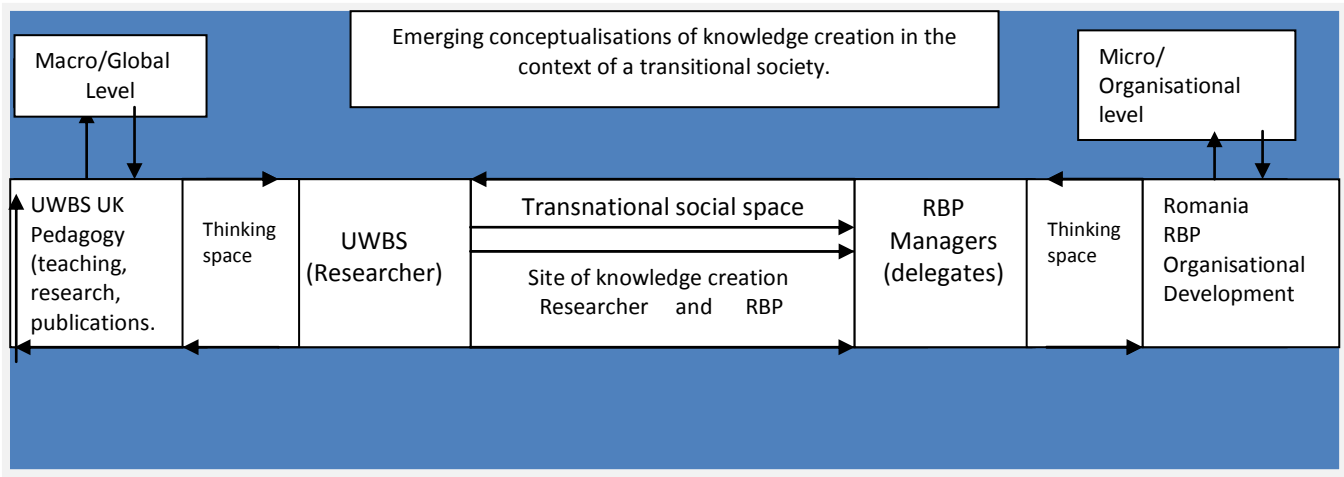
and examines the impact on the learning of the managers and on organisational development.

3. Transnational social space: the third factor is the arena in which local and global knowledge mingle, processes of learning take place, sense is made and power is exercised. In the researcher/RBP relationship this was the 'formal' educational space at the university before the research – with knowledge being taken back to Romania. In this social space we consider what local and global knowledge has been synthesised or produced to create new knowledge, giving further consideration to how power is exercised and the dynamics of the relationship. The arena changes depending on whether the social space is in UWBS or the RBP.
4. The fourth factor in the five factor model relates to the emergent knowledge at micro/organisational level, and the 'institutional outcomes of social and political processes, through which knowledge is transferred and acquired in the transnational social space' (2003:436). At the micro level, it includes organisational and managerial characteristics, structure and practice, and inevitably how these impact on change.
5. The fifth factor is concerned that the knowledge creation process is repeated across many transnational arenas, and the implication for global socioeconomic structures, and how the new practice and structure in 'turn influences the future national and global contexts of business' (2003:436).

The five factor model of Geppert and Clark are used primarily as a basis to examine the relationship of the knowledge transfer facilitator with the RBP managers, and for illustrating an emergent conceptual model of knowledge creation. The diagram (Figure 1.1) offers a preliminary map of the theoretical relationship at the start of the research relationship. The diagram illustrates how knowledge was initially transferred in the transnational social space, using a traditional didactic method delivered through the researcher. At this stage new knowledge was not created. This came later when the transfer and learning process took place in the Romanian arena when the research began. The context became a trigger for beginning to recognise the importance of what we later came to understand as knowledge

building (based on Bereiter and Scardamalia 1999). Here new knowledge was generated as the Romanian managers developed Western HRD ideas relevant to their own cultural context. The aim is for any created knowledge to be used to inform the change process of modernisation, assisting with the implementation of strategy, in the areas of organisational behaviour and development. Subsequently follow-up research has recorded the utility and success of some of the ideas from this new knowledge, in terms of offering sustainable OD methods for the RBP. Figure 1.1 also illustrates that at the macro level the researcher was synthesising the created knowledge for pedagogical consideration, in both areas of teaching and research. Conference research papers, publications and new models of knowledge creation were developed from the Researcher/RBP relationship for the global context (Firth 2003, 2008). The double arrows depicted in the transnational social space in figure 1.1 illustrate the site of knowledge transfer at the start of the programme of study. This site later becomes the arena for new knowledge. 'Thinking space' is a metaphor for the time used to reflect on the development of ideas after a study block, and subsequently between each collaborative meeting. The arrows do not necessarily denote the flow of knowledge but should be seen as a general illustration of the dynamic nature of the flow of ideas.

Figure 1.1 - An emergent conceptual model of knowledge creation (Initial Stage)



Source: Author Derived (200**7)** Based on the ideas of Geppert and Clark (2002)

1.4 The Romanian Border Police

The collaborating organisation is the Romanian Border Police (RBP).The first encounter with the RBP came in 2004, when the University of Wolverhampton Business School (UWBS) was awarded an EU PHARE contract to deliver an organisational change and development (OCD) programme to a group of senior RBP managers. The RBP is part of the Romanian Ministry of Administration and Interior, and was established in 1999 as a result of the start of a comprehensive reform and modernisation programme, and were previously known as the' Romanian Border Guards'. At the time of the research the organisation employed 25,000 staff and had six major crossing points at the borders attached to Military Training schools with the Headquarters in Bucharest (see Figure 1.2). They were at the time faced with challenges on how to develop their organisation to meet the EU accession demands.

The tender for assisting the organisation was won by UWBS and the purpose of the EU contract was to deliver a training programme, and essentially to assist in getting the organisation 'fit for purpose', that is for full accession to the EU and ultimately Schengen recognition. The Schengen area consists of European countries that have abolished passports and any other type of border control at their common borders. The channel for achieving the aims of the EU contract were the RBP senior management team, and the consequence would be to train the managers as 'experts' in how to address organisational change and development issues. Their knowledge of how to do this at the end was essential to the success of the programme. Prior to the start of the contract, the RBP underwent several stages of reform of its internal structure, in order to begin to bring it into compliance with similar structures of the EU. The specific aims of the UWBS training programme were concerned with helping the RBP develop the means to formulate National Strategy for Integrated Border Management 2004-2006, and as stated to address the pending inclusion into the EU (2007).

Figure 1.2 Romania's Geographical position in Europe

Source: www.europa.eu

To facilitate the modernisation project the senior managers were, four months prior to this research, given an opportunity of studying a postgraduate certificate in Human Resource Development. The course was essentially made up of four modules relating to organisation change, employee learning and development, strategic HRD planning, and a small work-based project. Most of the managers were directors or deputy directors of the training schools and were senior personnel responsible for designing highly technical border management strategic operational plans involving the organisation's values, mission, vision and culture. Moreover several of them were working with NATO on surveillance plans for the Black Sea. One of the managers was head of communication in the Organisation, and also attending was the head of HR. Their preferred mode of attendance was a block programme. This meant they would be in residence for five weeks including weekends. The period of five weeks were split into three parts, thus requiring the students to return to England on three separate occasions over a five-month period. The training programme was funded through PHARE. The RBP managers were carefully selected by means of an assessment process conducted by the PHARE contractors. The assessment consisted of a series of formal interviews and an English assessment. The University was not involved in this process but insisted that all delegates entering the programme held the International English Level Test

Score (IELTS) to level 6 standards. IELTS is recognised by all Universities as a secure, valid and reliable indicator of the ability to communicate in English. Level 6 English language is deemed as a competent user. This gives a general indication of the level of competence of the managers.

The programme began in March 2004 and ended in August of the same year. The delegates arrived in England March 2004, and were later to be the focus of my research. They became the 'collaborative co-researchers' (or co-inquirers, as they would prefer to be called) once the research started. The managers identity is anonymised for security reasons, but their roles have been listed in chapter five.

In order to understand further the context of the research an overview of Romanian culture is given in chapter four based on Hofstede's dimensional model of culture (1991). This is necessary to explain the profound cultural attributes that predate the onset of communism in that country. The 'observations and experiences' recorded in figure 4.7 and 4.8 were given by the Romanian managers. Clearly this is 'their' perception based on their understanding of the model, and can only be judged on that basis. Cultural frameworks, whilst appealing suffer from constraints and limitations. The cross-cultural trainer or researcher ought to be mindful of the fact that cultural differences apply to whole populations, within any group interaction, and individual differences will be more prominent than cultural differences. Within the Romanian group there were managers with Russian, Hungarian and Moldavian parents. This clearly accounted for some of the differences in opinion when applying Hofstede's model to analyse Romanian culture. There was however a more common understanding of the characteristics of their organisational culture.

This section has described the initial encounter with the research subjects as members of the RBP knowledge building community. Once the course at the University of Wolverhampton was complete permission was sought to carry out this research with the RBP managers. This was granted starting in July 2004 and finishing in November 2006, and consisted of ten visits to Romania. The visits are detailed and explained further in chapter five.

1.5 The RBP as a Knowledge Building Community

The terms 'knowledge building' and 'knowledge creation' have been used interchangeably in the literature. Knowledge building may be defined as the production and continual improvement of ideas of value to a community. It 'refers to the creation and improvement of ideas that have a life out in the world, where they are subject to social processes of evaluation, revision and application' (Scardamalia and Bereiter, 2003:2). However, more recently Bereiter and Scardamalia (2014:35) claim that 'Knowledge is the product of purposeful acts of creation and comes about through building up a structure of ideas (for instance, a design, a theory, or the solution of a thorny problem) out of simpler ideas'. The Knowledge Building Community (KBC) model extends beyond traditional understandings of human capability or expertise by treating such attributes as a process extant in distributed knowledge networks, not simply contained in the mind of the learner or practitioner. Ideally, knowledge building creates and improves upon the theory of objective knowledge, and that Bereiter (2002) calls *conceptual artefacts*: ideas, concepts, theories and innovations. In this research context, the goal was to foster knowledge embedded in practice. Embedded in any community's conceptual artefacts are cultural and historical material or ideal precedents (Engestrom, 1999).

A complex of twelve principles (Scardamalia, 2002) underpins socio-cognitive activity in a KBC. A prototypical example of a KBC is a scientific research network. The principles are: epistemic agency, knowledge building discourse, improvable ideas, community knowledge, real ideas and authentic problems, rise-above, idea diversity, symmetric knowledge, pervasive knowledge building, constructive use of authoritative sources, embedded transformative assessment, democratising knowledge and continual improvement. This research is concerned to draw on the use of two principles: epistemic agency and knowledge building discourse. Epistemic agency is taken to mean individual and collective responsibility for development of knowledge where participants set forth their ideas and negotiate a fit between personal ideas and those of others for the purpose of advancing

individual and organisational knowledge. The discourse of knowledge building communities is more than the sharing of knowledge; the knowledge itself is refined and transformed through the discursive practices of the community – practices that have the advancement of knowledge as their explicit goal. Moreover it has to be emphasised that there is a gap in the literature concerning research in EE, and specifically on models of knowledge creation, rather than transfer (Geppert and Clark 2003; Holden, 2001, 2002, Holden *et al*., 2004; *Iles et al*., 2004, Michailova and Hutchings 2006, Michailova and Hollinshead 2009). This research makes a unique contribution to the knowledge creation literature in EE. Rather than models of knowledge transfer this research seeks to develop a new conceptual process model of knowledge creation for OCD. The uniqueness of this research came through facilitating a group of Romanian managers in helping them recognise their own organisational change imperatives and create the knowledge to address the imperatives.

The KBC model has emerged from cognitive studies of literacy, intentional learning and in particular process aspects of expertise in multiple fields of practice (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1993). The primary goal of members of an innovative expert community is not merely to learn something (i.e. change, or simply add to, their own mental states) but to solve problems, originate new thoughts and advance communal knowledge in other words to surpass previous achievements (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1993). This activity is akin to what happens in scientific research communities. Such groups of experts have been the focus of much research by sociologists of science in the last two decades (Latour, 1987). A complex of twelve ideas or principles underpins socio-cognitive activity in knowledge building communities (Scardamalia, 2002). Ideally, these principles work in concert to create and improve upon what Bereiter (2002) calls conceptual artefacts – ideas, concepts, theories and innovations for subsequent use, for professional practice. The defining characteristic of members of a knowledge building community is commitment to the collective goal of improving ideas. This seems integral to knowledge-based professions and knowledge-creating organisations.

Journals were used to capture the RBP manager's assumptions of the organisation in creating new knowledge. They would record critical incidents or concerns they had about the organisation. This was not restricted to any particular aspect of the organisation, but could be used for whatever they felt needed recording and discussing for the next meeting. Keeping self-reflective journals is a strategy that can facilitate reflexivity, whereby the knowledge building community use their journal to examine 'personal assumptions and goals', and clarify 'individual belief systems and subjectivities' (Ahern as cited in Russell and Kelly, 2002: 2). Keeping a reflective journal is a common practice in qualitative research, particularly reflexive research. Methodologically it is accepted practice from a constructivist perspective (MacNaughton 2001, Denzin 2006). Furthermore the use of a journal for recording and capturing ideas is ideal when research is carried out at a distance.

In working collaboratively with the RBP managers the purpose was to forge the ideas of a knowledge building community as a basis on which to facilitate their thoughts and ideas on developing the organisation for a sustainable future, and equipped to meet the challenges of EU accession. The methodology used was collaborative co-inquiry (Reason and McArdle 2004), using critical reflective methods to capture insightful events that would be recorded in an individual journal. It has to be stressed at this juncture that for the purpose of this research the cyclical nature of collaborative co-inquiry could not always be realised because of the time lapse between each visit. A review of previous journal entries was followed up, but critical incidents were not followed through the action cycle as suggested with action research methods. A hybrid method was adopted whereby managers would record significant critical events and these would be reported on and discussed in the collaborative meetings, but not necessarily acted upon. There was an acknowledgment that action points might inhibit the process of recording spontaneous 'other' events in the workplace, or might dominate the managers thoughts. The actions arising from the meetings were recorded but were deemed to be less important than the reflective practice and the journal recordings. For most Western organisations reflective practices are probably common place. What is extraordinary about this research in addition to setting up a KCB is the use of action inquiry, and critical reflective practice through the use of journals, in an

organisation which is Eastern European, post-communist, hierarchical, and post-military, and where the notion of reflection was absent. The literature (Hollingshead and Michailova 2001, Holden and Von Kortzfleisch 2004) suggests that managers in such organisations are very fearful of any practice where the individual or collective onus of being 'inquisitive', 'reflective' or 'inquiring' is not only alien but also viewed with suspicion and scepticism. Chapter five presents a conceptual framework to demonstrate how an action inquiry strategy of collaborative co-inquiry was developed using critical reflective methods.

1.6 Research Design

Phase one consisted of working collaboratively with the senior managers selected by the RBP who attended the initial University Diploma in HRD. They were all members of the Strategic Board within the RBP and thus key people formulating HRD strategy and strategically placed in the organisation to make an impact on the development of the organisation. The objective was to establish the change and development needs of the organisation for modernisation as a precursor to EU accession. Journals, interviews and a questionnaire were used as methods of data collection. The second phase of the research was partially funded through the Europeaid Project 123605/D/SER/RO, and emerged from the findings of phase one which emphasised the crucial role of the training schools in facilitating the RBP's development for EU accession. A timeline of the research carried out can be found in table 1.3. Its purpose was to elicit the views of a sample of senior training school personnel about the key themes which emerged from phase one, as detailed in chapter five. None of the school personnel were members of the strategic board. Phase two required visits to all seven RBP training Schools (including the General Inspectorate in Bucharest). The methods used were questionnaires and interviews. An inventory of pedagogical strategies to identify current practice was developed later as a result of the findings from phase two. The findings of phase one and two can be found in Chapter six and seven, and detailed the organisational needs as articulated by senior managers and school personnel. Data triangulation is used to establish the validity of this qualitative study. Phase one took place from 2004-06, and Phase two began in 2007 and was completed in a year. A time frame for the visits is detailed in Chapter five.

1.7 The Researcher

The researcher has worked at the University of Wolverhampton Business School for the past twelve years, as a Senior Lecturer for five years, and more recently as a Principal Lecturer and Head of the HR and Leadership Department. Her specialism and interest sits primarily in the human resource development discipline, and is considered to be a HRD educator in learning and development, organisation change and development, as well as having a passion for critical reflective practice and its use in action learning, through writing journals. When the opportunity arose to apply knowledge in an Eastern European context the potential was identified for a unique and challenging doctoral research project. The interest in Eastern Europe and the development of post-communist organisations began a decade previously. From 1993 to 1998 when working as a HRD lecturer in a Further Education college, and was assigned to teach at the International College of banking and Finance in Moscow. This work required extensive travel out to Moscow several times a year. After five years of exposure to working life in Moscow an interest with the development of Eastern Europe emerged, and found the aftermath of the collapsed Soviet regime and its people, culture and newly evolving political system an exciting, yet emotive and tense working situation. The broad aims of the research were formulated at a very early stage. The aims were to develop a new approach to training and development by creating new knowledge collaboratively, on organisational change and development, and in a country with a transitional economy. The experience of working as a lecturer/consultant in Moscow gave exposure to some of the unscrupulous British training providers working vigilantly to instigate NVQ's and competency based management frameworks, that had little meaning to a recently transformed communist country. Having been involved as a witness to some of this it was quite clear that there was a need to develop an approach by creating new knowledge collaboratively on organisational change and development in a transitional economy.

1.8 Research Questions

The chapter has set the context and background to this research. The questions generated by this context have framed the research aims of developing a knowledge building community for knowledge creation to enable sustainable organisation change and development with the RBP, and through this a framework emerged where the participants set forth their ideas.

In order to do this the research questions were;

1. *How do Geppert and Clark's five factor framework, and Bereiter and Scardamalia's knowledge building community principles help facilitate the creation of new knowledge in the RBP?*
2. *How does collaborative co-inquiry and the use of journals in a specific organisational context better assist in knowledge generation and why?*
3. *What new knowledge, if any, was created through collaborative co-inquiry?*
4. *If so how was new knowledge utilised and implemented?*
5. *Can Knowledge creation for sustainable OCD in transitional contexts be expressed in the form of a conceptual process model?*

1.9 Thesis Structure

The thesis contains eight chapters, and is an interdisciplinary thesis crossing the disciplines of Management and Organisations, Social Sciences and Humanities. The thesis brings together the literature on discourses of the creation and development of knowledge in organisations, and how organisation (and national) culture impacts on the creation of knowledge, in the context of an EE post-communist organisation. It also draws on the literature concerned with the development of knowledge for organisational change in the context of EU accession. A time line of the research process can be found in table 1.2.

This opening chapter has set the scene, and contextualises the research by presenting a background to cross-cultural knowledge transfer in the EU. This is followed by the research framework and explains the development of a model of knowledge creation across cultures, incorporating the concept of a knowledge

building community. A brief introduction is given on the research organisation, research subjects (RBP managers) and the researcher. This chapter then explains how the research was conducted in two phases, and explains how through collaborative co-inquiry data was collected using journals, interviews and questionnaires, and analysed by NVivo (Phase one). Phase two research was conducted in the training schools using questionnaires, and interviews. The chapter concludes with the research questions and the thesis structure.

Chapter two entitled 'knowledge and creation in a cross cultural context' explores the nature of knowledge and considers current theoretical discussion of the conceptualisation of knowledge, and learning in the process of knowledge transfer, building, and management learning. It sets the scene for the subsequent chapters and contextualises this doctoral research, by presenting an overview of the growing importance of knowledge in organisations, and conceptualisations of knowledge. The chapter presents a discussion on alternative theories of knowledge transfer and knowledge creation, and goes on to consider knowledge creation in a cross-cultural context. In short, the chapter presents a synopsis of the cross-cultural knowledge transfer literature in various organisational contexts and builds on these presenting models of knowledge creation. The chapter is also concerned to examine conceptualisations of knowledge, knowledge and knowledge management, knowledge building communities and alternatives to knowledge transfer. What is clear from the literature, and is most significant for this research, is that over the last decade EU- funded knowledge training intervention from West to East has seen a definite shift in status. The literature presents the narrowing status differential between Western trainers and local participants and an increasing sophistication in the EE managers, who see the notion of Western-funded knowledge-transfer programme as patronising. The move to a more participative/collaborative approach is emerging where indigenous managers want to inject elements of their own organisation knowledge into a project, eradicating the former dictatorial methods of Western consultants.

Chapter three, 'Romania's borders and transition to the EU' provides a broad overview of the history of Romania, and begins with its borders as important context for this research. Britain, for example, does not have a specialised uniformed border police in the same way that Romania does. Hence the chapter tries to outline some of the ways in which the idea of policing the borders of the nation emerged, and the specific institutional forms that have developed in Romania to do this. This chapter also details the historic development of Romania in Europe emphasising importance of changing borders, and the increasing significance of the RBP for EU security. It presents the events leading up to Romania's accession to the EU, and traces the history of Romania's relationship with EU funding mechanisms, and forwards arguments that aid has sometimes hindered rather than helped political and social reform in Romania. Specifically it looks at the complexities of EU funding in Romania and reviews the literature. The chapter is ultimately a discourse on the complexity of cross-cultural knowledge transfer and creation through EU-funded programmes, and the difficulties of effective communication in this process. In the transfer of ideas, policies, beliefs, information, and methodologies they are transformed by the agendas, interests and interactions of the representatives at each stage of implementation and interface. Many layers and parties may become involved in the process and the result may be qualitatively different from that envisaged by the original communicator. The Chapter closes with an explanation of the importance of the RBP in Romania's plans for EU accession and Schengen, and the notorious history of EU-funded Western management development programmes, and the significance of this research to their development.

In Chapter four, 'cultural considerations', the aim is to explore the cultural context of an emergent Eastern European economy and to examine, in particular, notions of national culture in Romania and organisational culture within the RBP. Consideration has to be given to the complexities of cultural differences, and the limitations these present when conducting research. It is difficult to separate definitions of culture, nationalism, and identity, but this chapter attempts to put meaning to all aspects to understand better the RBP 'psyche'. This is paramount to the research. To attempt research in a different cultural context without an

understanding of the culture would be irresponsible and imprudent. Understanding the cultural context has been particularly useful in making an informed decision about the design of a knowledge building community and further informs the researcher's understanding of why and how the managers respond to particular stimuli, such as sharing knowledge and the use of journals, the kind of journal entries made, their perception of confidentially, their relationship with the researcher and each other. More pertinently an understanding of the RBP organisation cultural development gave meaning to how the managers view knowledge in relation to problem solving and how they interpret situations, and in turn how this affects knowledge building. Furthermore an understanding of organisation culture is the first imperative purported by Geppert and Clark, before research on knowledge creation can take place.

Chapter five explains the methodological choice and considerations for addressing the research questions as outlined in chapter one. This chapter details the process and methods used for collecting the research data. The rationale for adopting the research methods were presented in two phases. In phase one a collaborative co-inquiry approach was adopted working closely with managers using qualitative research methods for the data collection and analysis. The data collected was through the use of journals using critical reflective methods and the chapter details how this was introduced and implemented. The chapter explains the importance of the knowledge building community and critical reflective practice in the process of recording journal entries. For phase two further qualitative research methods were deployed for the purpose of collecting relevant data for the triangulation. This chapter explains how the research methods were employed.

Chapter six is one of two research findings chapters, and presents the emergent knowledge created over the research period, and addresses the main research questions. It explores the reflective capabilities of the Romanian Border Police Managers to reveal how they can create knowledge for organisational change and development in preparation for EU accession. Simultaneously a framework for facilitation emerged using the original research of Geppert and Clark (2002) as a foundation for the ideas, moving away from traditional models of knowledge

transfer to further develop the changing dimensions of training interventions in the EE as purported by Michaelova and Hollinshead (2009). It also discusses the findings in respect to the contribution this research has made in the field of knowledge transfer in a transitional organisation. The findings in phase one have emanated from three layers of the collaborative co-inquiry research, and is presented in three distinct sections of this chapter:

1. Findings from the knowledge building framework
2. Findings from managers' insights on the process of Critical Reflection
3. Findings from the Interviews and Journal Analysis

The findings result in a model of knowledge creation for the RBP and a better understanding of how the West can work with EE organisations to achieve the desired outcomes for developing organisations. Moreover, recommendations are made on how the EU can best utilise this research as a basis for funding knowledge transfer projects, to guarantee that funding is having an impact on developing organisations at a time of austerity. The chapter closed with an examination of how the ideas of Bereiter and Scardamalia have been applied to facilitate knowledge creation.

Chapter seven is the second of two analysis/findings chapters. The Key themes in Phase one were elicited through the use of interviews and journal records produced by the managers. The identification of the themes will constitute new knowledge in order to develop the organisation. To triangulate the data in phase one and ensure it is well founded, a detailed research regime consisting of three stages were conducted as outlined in the methodology chapter. These methods serve to triangulate the data. Triangulation is a powerful technique that facilitates validation of data through cross verification from more than two sources and gives a more detailed and balanced picture or the situation. This Chapter set out to validate the qualitative data in phase two by presenting the findings of the continued research carried out in the RBP training schools using three stages of investigation. The first stage is the assessment stage, followed by an elaboration stage, and finally the embedding of a new curriculum.

Chapter eight draws the thesis to a close by presenting a summary and conclusions, which bring together the main findings, as well as identifying the originality of approach, the implications and wider significance of the research, and its limitations and potential for further development. It explains how the thesis set out to develop an original approach to the aim of designing a knowledge building framework in a cross-cultural context for organisation development and change purposes, as opposed to the implementation of post-Western models and frameworks that have not, in many cases been a suitable 'fit' for post-communist organisations. It revisits the research questions with a re-emphasis on how these were met. The chapter demonstrates how the research questions have been answered by taking each question and referring back to the findings chapter and thus pointing to the evidence. Finally, it reflects on the future challenge for the EU in terms of developing organisations and urges EU funding agencies to take a wider view on assisting them to develop organisation knowledge**.** Achieving these goals would include facilitation of a framework for creating organisation knowledge, perhaps using the process recommended in this research.

Table 1.2 Research Timeline

Source: Author derived

CHAPTER TWO

Knowledge and Knowledge Creation in a Cross-Cultural Context

2.1 Introduction

Knowledge can be seen as representing a major asset organisations possess and its creation, dissemination, and application as a source of sustainable advantage is emphasised (Zack, 1999, Iles *et al*., 2004; Hislop, 2013). 'The explosion of interest in knowledge management among academics, public policy makers, consultants and business people began as recently as the mid-1990s' (Hislop, 2013:1). This is also true in an international context, in the knowledge transfer area, especially with human resource development. It is an approach, Ruggles (1998) suggests, 'adding to or creating value by more actively leveraging the know-how, experience and judgement resident within, and in many cases, outside of an organisation' (p. 80). It can be associated with less formal ranges of knowledge and ways of knowing than was traditionally the case. In other words, 'there has been a growing recognition that the performance of economies and organisations is dependent on qualities and attributes that are tacit in form' (Howells, 1996: 91). As Howells (1996) argues 'tacit knowledge' forms an important element in an organisation's knowledge base, has a central role in organisational development and can be acquired and transferred on a variety of levels such as individual, group, organisation and inter-organisational basis (Ibid). The level of interest in knowledge management is associated with the knowledge society thesis which 'is used by and shapes the business and educational policy making of a number of governments including the UK, Australia and the European Union' (Hislop, 2013: 1).

The ability to transfer knowledge within and between organisations is seen as critical to competitive and sustainable advantage (Holden 2002, Alvesson and Willmott 2003, O'Brian 2006, Lam and Lambermont-Ford 2010). There is a presumption that organisations can learn from cooperation with other actors, whether inside or outside the organisation. 'In its simplest form, knowledge transfer is the transfer or imparting of knowledge from one source to another such that the

recipient benefits' (Burns and Paton, 2005: 51). This thesis is concerned with the problems of cross-cultural transfer of knowledge and the ideas evolved initially from reflection, and cross-disciplinary discussion of a formal HRD training intervention between the University of Wolverhampton Business School and a post-socialist, ex-military organisation in Romania, the Romanian Border Police (RBP) funded through PHARE. The intervention raised questions about the whole process and validity of knowledge transfer in HRD initiatives by Western academics, practitioner and organisational learning and academic-practitioner engagement in the context of a transforming society (Firth, 2003). The main impetus for this research was the different conceptualisations of knowledge, learning subjects and the notion of knowledge transfer.

This chapter explores the knowledge building capacity of the managers, with regard to knowledge and ways of knowing, and specifically (1) the nature of knowledge and its conceptualisation and (2) organisational learning in the process of knowledge transfer and knowledge building. The central idea connecting and underpinning these considerations is the assumption that the end of the twentieth century witnessed an enormous economic and social transformation which resulted in knowledge becoming the key asset for organisations to manage (Hamel and Prahalad, 1994; Kaplan and Norton, 2004). It sets the scene for the methodology chapter and contextualises this doctoral research, by presenting an overview of the significance of knowledge in organisations, conceptualisations of knowledge and discusses alternative theories to knowledge transfer, before going on to consider knowledge creation in a cross-cultural context.

Changes in the way knowledge is produced and used in society and in work have contributed to, and are the result of changed social relations between knowledge and society (Castells, 1999; Hayek, 1945; Nonaka, 1994). Knowledge has acquired a new status in terms of the 'knowledge society' and 'knowledge economy', but its nature and validity has changed. This is reflected in the increased importance of knowledge and the way it is implicated in the social, cultural, economic and functional wellbeing of societies and organisations on the one hand and doubts

about its objectivity on the other. The changes are complex and interrelated. They are briefly discussed here only as background to the main concern of this chapter: the theorisation of knowledge as it informs the research project. It is the implications of the changed relationship between knowledge and society that have a bearing on the conceptualisation of the research: its focus, questions, design and methods.

These changes include those associated with globalisation, heightened uncertainty and risk arising from rapid and perpetual change (reflexive modernisation), with the nature of work and weakened insulation between fields of knowledge production and society. These changes are reflected in the academic literature with new conceptions of the human actor and knowledge. This has seen the focus of the academic disciplines that underpin organisational development and education shift from knowledge to knowers.

'Globalisation' is commonly used as a shorthand way of describing the spread and connectedness of production, communication and technologies across the world (Castells, 2000). While globalisation was initially driven by powerful western nations to expand markets based on neo-liberal policies (Olssen and Peters, 2005), it has since developed its own dynamic. It now has social and cultural roots as well as economic, and these social and cultural changes have affected the way we work and live. One result of globalisation is that organisations have become more informational, where the creation and storage of knowledge is now a crucial factor of management and development (Giddens, 2007).

There is also debate on the extent to which globalisation has transformed work and organisational development. Proponents of the globalisation thesis argue that 'knowledge work' is now the crucial factor not only driving the world economy but innovation and organisational development. The work relationship has also changed the psychological contract (Robinson, Matthew, Kraatz and Rousseau 1994). This means that in addition to technical skills, workers need 'person-oriented' and organisation-oriented skills to take responsibility for collaboration,

training and development and quality assurance. The nature of knowledge and skill has been redefined from technical knowledge and skills to include an array of general and person capacities and attitudes (Chappell et al, 2003). Increasing emphasis is placed on a range of worker's personal attributes and skills such as team-work, communication and problem-solving. This extends to attributes such as commitment and personal loyalty. In other words, worker's 'identities' have been reinvented as central elements of the employment/organisational contract.

2.2 Insulation between society and the field of knowledge production

The insulation between society and the field of knowledge production has changed as has the way society uses knowledge (Bernstein, 2000). The changes and the debates that have ensued have often been cast in apocalyptic polarities (Muller, 2000: 145). On the one hand there are those who argue for a return to the old standards that modernity built between knowledge and human action. In this account knowledge is objective and deployed for different purposes following rational processes of decision making. On the other hand, there are those who argue that the institution of knowledge production has been transformed because it now exists in different relationships to the world of the social, politics, culture and the economy (Ibid.). These new relations of knowledge production have replaced beliefs about the objectivity and neutrality of knowledge with views premised on the relativity of knowledge and this has changed the way it is understood, the way it is produced and the way it is used (Muller, 2000: 145). 'The essence of the argument… is that social changes in society have transformed the nature of knowledge so that the tacit, contextual and immediately applicable is more productive than the disciplinary and codified, resulting in an emphasis on contextualised and situated knowledge' (Wheelahan, 2010: 3).

Historically, the intellectual tradition of the university valued the explicit, the scientific, and discipline-based theory. In this tradition, knowledge is pursued for its own sake, through patient scholarship and the critique of presently accepted ideas and theory. This approach adheres to a hierarchical model of knowledge where the knowledge and skills of application and practice are of a lower order than the knowledge seen to lie in the theories and *modus operandi* of the disciplines. Seeing

practice as mere technique, subordinate to theory and lacking the status of 'true' knowledge, is seen by many as a weakness of this technical-rational model, inhibiting rather than enhancing organisational development (Usher and Bryant 1987).

Since the 1990s professional and human resources education has moved away from this technical-rational or 'technocratic' model to a 'post-technocratic' model as defined by Bines and Watson (1992); one that is primarily concerned with organisational and professional knowledge and action and process. The shift in emphasis is from academic to professional development, encompassing a practitioner's theories in- use knowledge for practice, and the skills required to use reflection, observation, analysis and evaluation to develop organisational practice. The trend has been to see knowledge as an active entity within experiential, intuitive judgment-making rather than rule-based, rational reasoning. In pedagogic terms, traditional didactic approaches focusing on content are replaced by more reflexive, pragmatic and experiential approaches, which place the individual learner at the heart of an active learning process.

This has seen a number of organisational and educational developments and a cluster of terms that pervade such discourses: distributed expertise, learning organisations, knowledge management, knowledge transfer, lifelong learning, creativity and higher-order thinking skills. The need to understand more reflective and experiential forms of professional knowledge, knowledge formation advancement and pedagogies (teaching, learning and assessment), is now felt in various fields and especially in education, cognitive science and business sciences (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; Nonaka and Toyama, 2003). Indeed, the strong mutual consent about the enhanced importance of knowledge, itself carries a potential hazard. It 'has a strong tendency to form an unholy alliance with one's intuitive certainty about knowledge. Knowledge is in danger of becoming an unproblematic theoretical passe-partout that does not deserve one's full awareness anymore' (Ibert, 2007: 104). Allen (2000), for instance, criticises the majority of empirical works because they equate knowledge with a rationalistic, or in his words the 'cognitive' concept of knowledge without explicitly accounting for it and

without taking alternative views into consideration. Epistemological issues related to knowledge and learning thus become increasingly important.

2.3 Economic change – the growing importance of knowledge in organisations

The broad consensus on this enhanced importance of knowledge derives from the views of economists, sociologists and other thinkers who have, at least since the 1970s, recognised that the economy in the more developed world was devoted more to the production and delivery of knowledge-based products and services than to manufacturing and other material goods. Economists such as Paul Romer (1994) have argued that land, labour and capital no longer constitute the basis of the modern economy. Instead, ideas create a significant proportion of economic value. Knowledge is a principal asset in the development of both national and organisational well-being and wealth (Burns and Paton, 2005). The ability to use intellectual capability and create new solutions for human needs is now taking central place in the global knowledge economy (Kakabadse *et al*., 2002). Flowing from this is the idea that 'the nature of work has also changed significantly, with the importance of intellectual work increasingly significant' (Hislop, 2013: 2).

In the latter part of the twentieth century, there was a significant change in industry and commerce in the leading industrial nations, involving not only a change in the type of products and services produced, and the nature of work itself, but the importance of information and knowledge in many aspects of social and economic life (Hutton 1995). This change resulted mainly from dramatic advances in information processing and communication technologies, with other contributing factors including increasing globalisation facilitated by easier and cheaper air travel, and increasing competition in the hitherto traditional manufacturing industries from the emerging far eastern countries, with their advantage of an almost limitless supply of cheap labour. In Europe, the further enlargement of the European Union and the increasing centralisation of power and policy making, created a need for more flexibility and diversity in national economies.

Many observers considered the resulting changes to be of historical magnitude; for instance, Burton-Jones (1999:3) argued that 'this transformation from a world dominated by physical resources to one dominated by knowledge, implies a shift in the locus of economic power as profound as that which occurred at the time of the industrial revolution'. Similarly, Giddens (2000:69) argued 'the knowledge economy marks a major transition in the nature of economic activity… its agents are knowledge workers… the know-how of these is the most valuable property firms have'. The knowledge management literature is generally based on an analysis which suggests that since the 1970s, economies and society in general have become more information and knowledge intensive, with these types of industries replacing manufacturing industry as the main wealth generator in Western Europe and North America.

This situation was predicted by Daniel Bell in his book 'The Coming of Post-Industrial Society' first published in 1973. Other early writers on this theme, developed a similar analysis, such as Machup (1962); as a consequence, the post-industrial society thesis as foreseen by Bell and the contemporary conceptualisations of a knowledge society, have much in common. Burton-Jones (1999) explicitly links his knowledge capitalism model to Bell's thesis, and Bell himself has used the terms knowledge and information societies interchangeably with the post-industrial society concept (Webster 1996).

Bell's (1973) analysis of society is based on the predominant mode of employment, with industrial society characterised by an emphasis on manufacturing and fabrication, while in the post-industrial society the service sector has become predominant, replacing manufacturing as the main source of income and the largest employer of labour. A crucial characteristic of the post-industrial society is that knowledge and information play a more significant role in economic and social life, as the service sector is argued to be more knowledge/information intensive than manufacturing. Bell further argues that in addition to the quantitative increase, there has also been a qualitative change in the type of knowledge used, with theoretical knowledge becoming the most important type. In the post-industrial society professional service work is of central importance, and this type of work

involves the development, use and application of situated theoretical knowledge to a far greater extent than manual work. In his final analysis, Bell takes the very optimistic view that in the post-industrial society more wealth will be generated; individual workers will have more fulfilling jobs, with unpleasant, repetitive jobs declining in number; individuals will have more disposable income, and there will be greater scope for community development and collective support.

Is there empirical evidence to support this characterisation of post-industry society? Statistical evidence has been mobilised and presented to show a decline in manufacturing employment and a similar increase in service sector work. Castells (1995), produced evidence from a wide range of economies which showed the long-term shift from industry to advances in computer technology would make workers more knowledge and skill intensive, through services, and from goods-handling to information-handling work. Zuboff (1988) suggested the potential for problem-solving and abstraction these technologies provide workers. This perspective is supported by Gallie et al (1998) in research conducted in the UK in the mid-1990, where 65% of the workers surveyed reported experiencing an increase in skill levels of their jobs. Further evidence obtained by Felstead et al (2000) appears to reinforce these conclusions. Aggregate statistical evidence appears to support Bell's thesis, and his analysis of the increasingly important role of information and knowledge in all aspects of social and economic life being apparently vindicated.

There are however criticisms of the knowledge society theorists, the main one being that they conflate knowledge work with jobs in the service sector, and use the size of the service sector employment to support their theory of the transition to a knowledge society. The service sector has grown rapidly, but it encompasses an enormously heterogeneous range of job types, including on the one hand, scientists, consultants and marketing executives, and on the other, cleaners, security personnel, food production operators, call-centre workers and drivers. It is apparent that this sector does not represent a coherent and uniform category of employment, and to suggest that all of this work is knowledge intensive, fails to acknowledge the reality of the situation. "While some service sector work such as consultancy and research can be classified as knowledge intensive, other types of

work such as security, office cleaning, and fast food restaurant work, are low skilled, repetitive and routine" (Thompson et al, 2001:46).

A second criticism concerns the supposed expansion of employment growth in the knowledge-intensive occupations. Taking professional work as a proxy for knowledge work, Elias and Gregory (1994), show that while there was some growth in professional occupation categories in the UK during the 1990s, it was not particularly significant, with these occupations accounting for about 20 per cent of all employment in the UK (a similar figure was produce by Rifkin (2000:174) for the USA in the mid-1990s). Thompson et al (2001), also claim that employment growth in more routine, low skilled occupations has been equally significant.

Criticism has also been levelled at the claim in the post-industrial society thesis that theoretical knowledge holds a privileged position over other types of knowledge (tacit knowledge and skills). An example of this occurs in Frenkel et al's (1995) analysis of knowledge work, where the knowledge intensity of any job can be measured on three dimensions, one of which is the type of knowledge used. In the analysis, theoretical knowledge is used as a measure of knowledge intensity, while what they term 'contextual knowledge' is not. This is contradictory to the view that, to some extent, all work is knowledgeable work (Knights et al, 1993, 976), involving the use of various amounts of tacit knowledge (Manwaring and Wood, 1985). It highlights the difficulty in getting an agreed definition of what constitutes knowledge work, and which workers should be classified as knowledge workers. Bell's conception of theoretical knowledge as codifiable and objective, draws on classical images of scientific knowledge, but much contemporary analysis sees knowledge as having different characteristics, being partial, tacit, subjective and context-dependent.

Despite the criticisms of Bell's forecasts, an indication of the importance and prevalence of information in modern organisations is supported by the growing use of the term 'information overload' by some managers. The efficiency of current data-processing equipment and methods results in the production of vast quantities of reports and spreadsheets, and more skill and knowledge will be required to

analyse, interpret and understand the implications of the information, to ensure better segregation in terms of relevance and importance.

Although many of the issues and forecasts contained in 'The coming of post-industrial society' may still be open to debate and argument, there can be no dissent about the fact that there have been profound changes for the advanced, industrial economies, not only in the type of products and services provided, and the nature of work, but also in the role of information and knowledge in many aspects of social and economic life. There appears to be no reason to expect that this type of change will not continue into the foreseeable future. It may, however, be an exaggeration to suggest that we have achieved the kind of social transformation being claimed.

2.4 Conceptualisations of Knowledge

'What is knowledge' represents one of the most fundamental questions that humanity has grappled with, and has occupied the minds of philosophers for centuries (Hislop, 2005: 16). The movement away from a technical-rational approach to knowledge has brought different types of knowledge and ways of knowing into higher education and organisational learning. Works by Polanyi (1962, 1966, 1969), Schön (1983) and Usher *et al.* (1997) explain that it has to be recognised that there is knowledge *in* practice rather than simply knowledge *for* practice. Eraut (1994) has identified this knowledge in practice as comprising process knowledge (skilled behaviour and deliberation) and personal knowledge (impressions and experiential interpretations), which alongside a third category of propositional knowledge (theories, concepts and propositions), together create organisational/professional knowledge.

There is an enormous diversity of conceptualisation and definition of knowledge *per se*. However, two broad perspectives within the knowledge management literature can be recognised: objectivist/positivist and constructivist/practice-based. While the constructivist perspective is founded on a critique of the objectivist perspective, the objectivist perspective has by no means been abandoned (Hislop, 2013). The

objectivist perspective is closely aligned with a positivistic philosophy, whereas the constructivist perspective is compatible with a number of philosophical perspectives. Within knowledge management practice and analysis there is evidence that both perspectives are in use, sometimes in a rather incoherent way.

Knowledge is widely treated as a functional resource, representing a 'truth' on organisational subject matter and/or a set of principles or techniques for dealing with organisational systems and procedures. This view is blended with constructivist ideas about the nature of knowledge development (Hislop, 2013). Thus, on the one hand, there is an emphasis on the subjective, tacit and socially constructed nature of knowledge (or at least in its creation), and a notion of knowledge as true, verifiable, functional and non-problematic, on the other. The emphasis on functionality has resulted in a sort of epistemological reification. Knowledge is mostly thought of as a commodity circulating in bundled packages. The facticity of knowledge, its matter of factness, is taken for granted, while little attention is paid to the subjective, interactive and contentious nature of knowledge making. 'As a result, interest in the instrumental value of knowledge has displaced attention to generative and configurative processes' (Lanzara and Patriotta, 2001: 944). Perhaps the most important difference between the two epistemologies of knowledge is that the constructivist-based perspective challenges the entitative conception of knowledge. From this perspective, knowledge is not regarded as a discrete entity/object that can be codified and separated from people. Instead, knowledge is embedded within and inseparable from lived practices.

The idea of knowledge management has captured the imagination of practitioners, academics and business managers (Alveson and Karreman, 2001, Holden 2002, Wright 2005,). The idea that knowledge can somehow be managed has great appeal, while pointing out the oxymoronic character of the concept of knowledge management. Surveys by Scarborough and Swan (2001) and Wilson (2002) have shown that 'prior to the mid-1990s interest in the topic was virtually non-existent, but from about 1996 the number of publications on knowledge management grew exponentially' (Hislop, 2013:2). In practical terms, the aim of knowledge management, as a learning-focused activity, as Ruggles (1998) suggests, is to add or

create ‘value by more actively leveraging the know-how, experience and judgement resident within, and in many cases, outside of an organisation (p. 80).

2.5 Knowledge and Knowledge management

Knowledge and management are concepts that have been around for a long time, but the combination, ‘knowledge management’, is of more recent origin (McInerney 2005, Jennex 2008, Nonaka and Von Krogh 2009). The question of the nature of knowledge and its role has been a concern of knowledge management for a while. Knowledge management can be seen as an umbrella term that covers a broad terrain of academic orientations and its concerns are by no means unitary. The use of the term in the literature indicates that knowledge management has been more concerned with knowledge than with management. Management is treated as something that is self-evident and unproblematic or, more commonly, remains unexamined (Alveson and Karreman, 2001: 995). The principles that underpin socio-cognitive activity in knowledge building communities, however, concerned as they are with creating social structures and collaborative processes that support knowledge advancement and innovation are a basis for the consideration of what management is about. The literature on knowledge and learning subjects is rich and diverse, with many disciplines engaging with these topics before knowledge management became popular among researchers and practitioners. Recent interest in knowledge stems from more than current neo-liberal appeals within educational and organisational discourses for the need to ‘educate for change’, to prepare individuals and organisations for a ‘knowledge economy’ or a ‘knowledge society’. Challenges to the status of knowledge during the last century and the emergence of a diversity of epistemologies of science and social science that have questioned the assumed foundation, objectivity and legitimation of scientific knowledge within a more reflexive modernity have led in recent decades to invigorating debate among academics and practitioners from all disciplines about the nature of knowledge and its purposes and effects.

As already mentioned, very broadly, there are two different perspectives on knowledge in the knowledge management literature which have been labelled in a

number of ways (Hislop 2005, O'Brien 2006). Knowledge is viewed either as a mental state or object, or as a process. Orientation towards one of these alternatives determines the strategies for organisational learning and managing knowledge. In the first perspective, knowledge is considered as 'thing-like', as an entity or commodity that is objective (justified true belief), non-problematic, portable and manageable, according to which learning is mainly a process of *acquiring* the desired objects of knowledge. This objectivist perspective is closely aligned with a positivistic philosophy. In the second perspective, knowledge is considered as a more subjective, situational and dynamic matter, emphasising the socially constructed nature of knowledge. This constructivist perspective is compatible with a number of philosophical perspectives. From this perspective, knowledge is not regarded as a discrete entity or object that can be codified and separated from people. Here learning is a process of *participating* in various cultural practices and shared learning activities. And as already emphasised, the constructivist perspective is founded on a critique of the objectivist perspective, the objectivist perspective has by no means been abandoned, though there has been a shift in emphasis from the former to the latter (Hislop, 2013).

Yet, as Swan and Scarborough (2001: 914) argue, these perspectives have coalesced around the functionalist concern that if knowledge is a critical resource and source of sustainable advantage, then it must be managed more effectively. In other words the idea of knowledge management builds on a widespread but rather peculiar understanding of the nature of knowledge. Knowledge is widely treated as a functional resource, representing a 'truth' on organisational subject matter and/or a set of principles or techniques for dealing with organisational systems and procedures. This view is fused with constructivist ideas about the nature of knowledge development. Thus, on the one hand, there is an emphasis on the subjective, tacit and socially constructed nature of knowledge (or at least in its creation), and a notion of knowledge as true, verifiable, functional and non-problematic, on the other. The social nature of knowledge creation is emphasised but this regularly stops short of acknowledging the socially constructed nature of knowledge itself. The idea of knowledge management draws much of its power

from the idea that knowledge reliably can be separated from its social context and thus stored, retrieved and transferred (Alveson and Karreman, 2001: 998-9).

Within the knowledge management literature there is the recognition that the ability to successfully transfer knowledge across borders consistently falls short of expectation (Clark and Geppert, 2002; Geppert and Clark 2003; Holden, 2001, 2002, Holden *et al*., 2004; Iles et al., 2004, Michailova and Hutchings, 2006, Michailova and Hollinshead 2009). This includes support for the development of transformational economies and societies in the former socialist countries and republics of the USSR, despite the predominant use of the term 'knowledge transfer' in such contexts when referring to training programmes derived from Western sources. The lack of personal relationships, trust and cultural distance are all factors that can create contradictions, misunderstandings and resistance.

While the literature engages with the processes of knowledge transfer in its cross-cultural dimensions (Holden and Kortzfleisch, 2004), 'the literature is vague on how to handle culture in its wider international manifestations' (Holden, 2002: 155). All in all, Holden and Von Kortzfleisch (2004) claim knowledge management theorists and practitioners 'have problems integrating the impact of 'culture' as a theoretical construct and empirical reality' (p. 128). The major perspectives on knowledge transfer in a cross-cultural context Iles et al. (2004) point out, 'adopts a unilinear, commodity view of knowledge and its transfer' (p. 659). It is suggested that a feature of the literature is a lack of conceptual development as a means of gaining a better understanding of the phenomenon (Gupta and Govindarajan 2000). It is against this mainstream backdrop that this thesis seeks to make a contribution. The theoretical knowledge gap that this research has sought to address are in the development of a conceptual process model for knowledge creation, empirically demonstrating the efficacy of Geppert and Clarke's five factors for knowledge transfer, and Bereiter and Scardemalia's model of a KBC. This addresses the vagueness of how to handle culture in its wider international manifestation, and moves away from the commodity view of knowledge and its transfer. Without doubt, the capacity of organisations to create and efficiently combine knowledge

from different locations around the world has become increasingly important both as a determinant of competitive advantage and organisational effectiveness (Kohlbacher and Krake 2007).

2.6 Knowledge Building Community model

There are a number of models of *innovative knowledge communities* that can help us to better understand basic epistemological processes of knowledge advancement and 'transfer' those including Engestrom's (1987, 1999) theory of expansive learning and Nonaka, Takeuchi's (1995) model of knowledge creation as well as Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1993) model of knowledge building, which is used as a process model for the research project. These theories challenge notions of what learning and knowledge are all about. The models attempt to characterise learning in modern knowledge societies and innovative knowledge communities where fundamental changes and transformations take place. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993) argue that in innovative knowledge communities there are no longer clear cut roles for individuals; instead we all have collective responsibility. The knowledge creation metaphor sees learning as analogous to innovative processes of collective inquiry where new ideas are created and the initial knowledge is either simultaneously enriched or significantly transformed during the process (Paavola *et al.*, 2002: 1).

For the past two decades, Bereiter and Scardamalia and their colleagues at the University of Toronto have been researching and developing how to create knowledge-building communities and environments (Bereiter, 1985; Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1993, 1996; Scardamalia, Bereiter and Lamon, 1994; Bereiter, Scardamalia, Cassells and Hewitt, 1997; Scardamalia, 2000, 2002; Scardamalia and Bereiter 1999, 2000, 2002, 2003). Knowledge building may be defined simply 'as the production and continual improvement of ideas of value to a community' (Scardamalia and Bereiter, 2002: 370) or as 'the creation and improvement of ideas that have a life out in the world, where they are subject to social processes of evaluation, revision and application' (page 2), (Scardamalia and Bereiter, (2003).

The Knowledge Building Community model extends beyond traditional understandings of human capability or expertise by treating such attributes as a process extant in distributed knowledge networks, not simply contained in the mind of the learner or practitioner. Ideally, knowledge building creates and improves upon what Bereiter (2002) calls *conceptual artefacts*: ideas, concepts, theories and innovations. In the present context, however, the goal was to foster knowledge embedded in practice. Their work has focused on knowledge building and the enabling technology specifically in a learning setting, though knowledge building is not confined to education but applies to creative knowledge work of all kinds. It has generated a set of salient ideas or principles which can be operationalised in many settings, including the interprofessional cross-cultural engagement of the type concerned with here.

The KBC model has emerged from cognitive studies of literacy, intentional learning and in particular process aspects of expertise in multiple fields of practice (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1993). The primary goal of members of an innovative expert community is not merely to learn something (change, or simply add to, their own mental states) but to solve problems, originate new thoughts and advance communal knowledge in order to surpass previous achievements (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1993). The defining characteristic of members of a knowledge building community is commitment to the collective goal of improving ideas. This seems integral to knowledge-based professions and knowledge-creating organisations. Bereiter and Scardamalia's general approach calls attention to the process aspects of 'expertise'. Expertise involves the reinvestment of cognitive resources and progressive problem-solving, which is addressing the problems of one's domain at increasing levels of complexity. Progressive problem-solving characterises not only people on their way to becoming experts, but it also characterises experts when they are working at the edges of their competence. The process of expertise is iterative, recursive, effortful and requires collaboration and social support. The knowledge building communities model construes expertise as a characteristic of communities and careers/professions as opposed to individuals. Although knowledge creation processes are fundamentally social in nature, individual activity

is also emphasised not individuals separately, but individuals acting as part of a social stream of activities.

The process of expertise is articulated by the knowledge building principles (Scardamalia, 2002) that guide activity in distributed networks of learners, practitioners and researchers. When operationalised, knowledge building principles offer a means by which members of the community may emulate expert behaviour regardless of individual or collective levels of status or ability. A complex of twelve principles underpins socio-cognitive activity in a knowledge-building community where collective cognitive responsibility is nurtured (Scardamalia, 2002). They are:

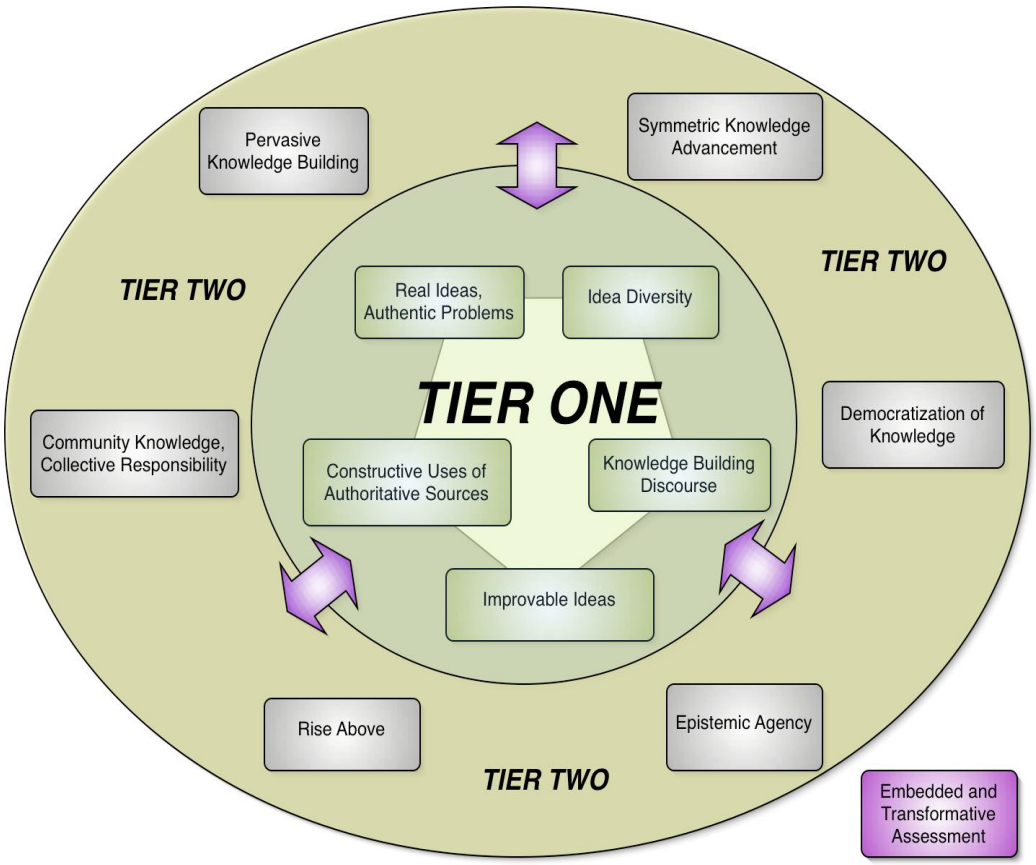
Table 2.1 Principles of knowledge building

1.	epistemic agency
2.	knowledge building discourse
3.	improvable ideas
5.	real ideas and authentic problems
6.	rise-above
7.	idea diversity
8.	symmetric knowledge
9.	pervasive knowledge building
10.	constructive use of authoritative sources
11.	embedded transformative assessment
12.	democratising knowledge and continual improvement

Source: From Bereiter and Scardamalia, (2002)

These principles are akin to what happens in scientific research communities. Such groups of experts have been the focus of much research by sociologists of science in the last three decades (Latour, 1987). They rest on the recognition that the construction of knowledge as it goes on in expert communities is different from learning as conventionally defined, although related to it.

Figure 2.1 Twelve Principles of a Knowledge Building Community



Source: Courtesy of ChrisTeplovs (2004). Found in Phillips (2007)

The principles outlined by Bereiter and Scardemaliar are captured in the two-tier model shown in Figure 2.1 (Philips 2007:9) Tier one principles are displayed at the start of a knowledge building intervention, whereas tier two ideas appear with experience. According to Philips tier two principles blend with tier one when with a group is experienced in knowledge building. Hence there is an equilibrium force between tiers one and two, as the arrow depict, where groups are expected to move from one to the other continuously. Embedded and transformative assessment is external to the tiers because it acts on both at all times in the knowledge building process, providing feedback into the system in the manner described by Bonabeau for self-organising systems (Gloor, 2006, p. 20).

Two predominant metaphors of learning and knowledge communities have been distinguished, according to which learning is a process of knowledge *acquisition* and

construction by individual learners; and *participation* (according to the many variations of the participation metaphor) in social processes of knowledge construction (Greeno, 1998; Vygotsky, 1978), enculturation (Brown *et al*., 1989), guided participation (Rogoff, 1990) or legitimate peripheral participation (Lave and Wenger, 1991). The acquisition metaphor represents a traditional view which presupposes pre-given structures of knowledge and focuses on how the individual learner is supported in a process of assimilation and outcomes, which are realised in the process of transfer (that is, the process of using and applying knowledge in new situations). Hence, knowledge is understood as a property or capacity of an individual mind. The participation metaphor considers learning as a process of increased mastery of a community's knowledge and participation in adaptation to existing cultural practices. Accordingly, the focus is on 'knowing', and not so much on outcomes or products, that is, on 'knowledge' in the traditional sense. Cognition and knowing are distributed over both individuals and their environments, and learning is 'located' in these relations and networks of distributed activities of participation. The goal of learning is communal building. The distinction between the acquisition metaphor and the participation metaphor highlights the distinction between cognitive and situated (or situative) perspectives of learning and the genesis of new knowledge. A cognitive perspective emphasises *knowledge*, whereas a situated approach emphasises participation in social practices and action.

Knowledge building, by contrast, is a deliberate activity for building knowledge that involves collaborative efforts to create, develop, understand and critically analyse various conceptual artefacts. This results in the improvement of knowledge itself. It does not focus only on the interaction between people, culture and environment, but on specific objects of activity being systematically developed within these communities. In Bereiter and Scardamalia's knowledge building communities these common objects are conceptual artefacts. This approach focuses on investigating mediated processes of knowledge creation that have become especially important in a knowledge building society. It helps to elicit and understand processes of deliberate knowledge advancement that are important in organisations.

These approaches to learning are not mutually exclusive. All are needed in order to adequately capture learning processes and knowledge creation (Lam 2010). They help to understand the complexity of human cognition. The knowledge creation metaphor of learning, however, appears to help to overcome the dichotomy of the acquisition (cognitive) and participation (situative) metaphors (Paavola *et al*., 2002: 1). The knowledge creation metaphor means that knowledge is emphasised (as in the acquisition metaphor), but not as such but according to the processual point of view (*ibid*., p.2). In the participation metaphor 'the permanence of *having* gives way to the constant flux of *doing*' (Sfard, 1998: 6). But in the knowledge creation metaphor it is not just the situatedness of action and participation in social interaction that is emphasised, but rather the process of developing and creating knowledge. The point being made is that knowledge building involves learning, but a great deal of learning is never converted to knowledge building. Knowledge building communities enable ideas to get out into the world and onto a path of continual improvement (Scardamalia and Bereiter, 2002, 1999; Lamon, Reeve and Scardamalia, 2001). The importance of the knowledge building communities model is that it is a model of knowledge creation directed at effecting cultural change by supporting the way we collectively think, learn and practice.

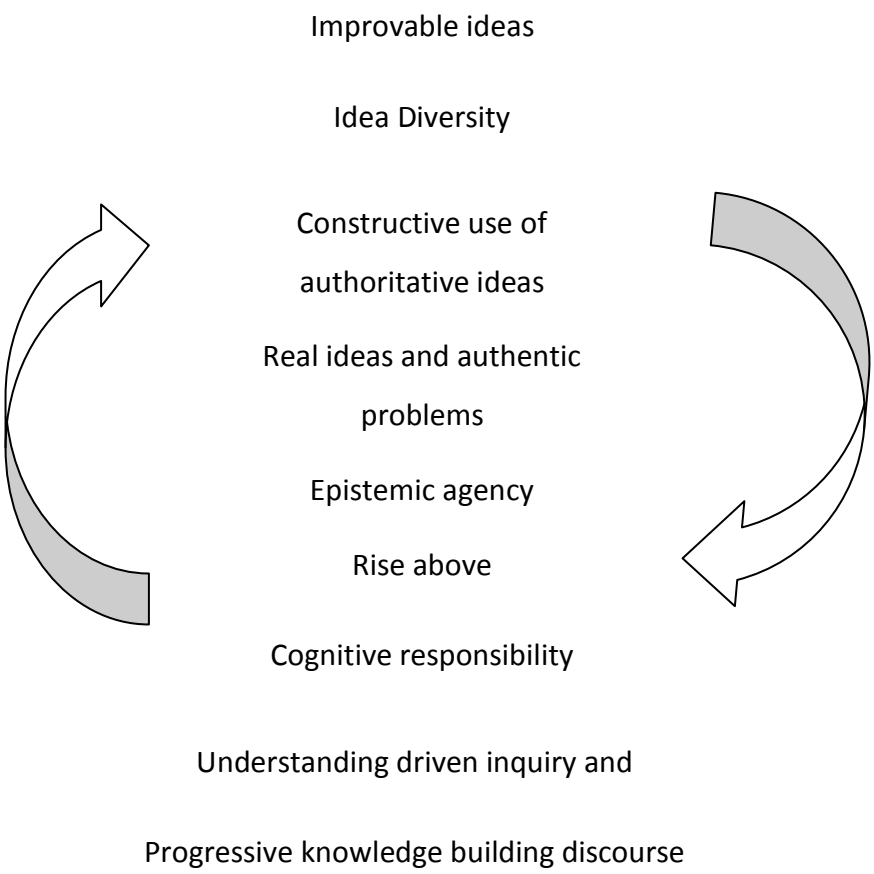
The distinction is obvious in the work of a scientific research team. The team's aim is to produce new knowledge. Empirical research, although essential, does not directly yield new knowledge, rather, it makes its contribution through being brought as evidence into discourse. Knowledge transforming discourse is central to knowledge building because it is the means through which knowledge is formed, criticised and amended (Scardamalia, Bereiter and Lamon, 1994). The individual and collective learning that goes on within the group is secondary – a by-product of knowledge production and a contributor to it (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1996). While both learning and knowledge building are needed and are closely related, the distinction is important.

Knowledge building principles enable the possibility of groups of practitioners/workers to function at the edges of competency and to extend beyond 'best practices' through collective cognitive responsibility (Scardamalia,

2002). The notion of *beyond* 'best practice' is common in scientific research communities where 'discovery', creativity and innovation are expected socio-cognitive and cultural-historical activities. However, in many workplaces and organisations, achieving and sustaining competency is often 'best practice'. The close links between knowledge building and technology as emphasised in the work of Bereiter and Scardamalia, raises the question of whether in principle the practices could exist without the technology. Scardamalia (2002) emphasises that this is possible, though they found the technology to be important, not only for practical reasons, to overcome the obstacles created by classroom conditions, such as offering a significant channel for communication in the classroom that is not mediated by the teacher, but also for conceptual reasons. The principles of knowledge building can, however, be extracted from their enabling technologies and put to work.

Training interventions are about knowledge. However, such events in their various forms tend to deal with knowledge in quite different ways from the ways in which it is dealt with in innovative knowledge communities (see Fig.2.2). Scardamalia and Bereiter (2003: 101) have usefully distinguished between two modes that characterise our dealing with knowledge in all kinds of learning contexts: *belief mode* and *design mode*. The point is education and training programmes operate almost exclusively in the belief mode as far as ideas are concerned. The response to ideas in belief mode is to agree or disagree, present arguments and evidence for and against, try to resolve differences, to find the right answer. When in design mode, however, the concern is with the usefulness, adequacy, improvability and developmental potential of ideas. Moving back and forth between modes is common. In belief mode, participants treat ideas as fixed entities, to be accepted or rejected, and sometimes to be applied. They do not treat them as improvable objects.

Figure 2.2 Knowledge Building Principles



Source: From Scardamalia and Bereiter (2002)

Even the more learner-centred, inquiry-based approaches to education/training, which can be labelled constructivist and engage practitioners to a greater or lesser extent with ideas, are not operating in design mode (Wright 2005). Though practitioners have greater or lesser amounts of responsibility for achieving learning goals, the overarching responsibility and means of improving and developing ideas are either absent or remain with the trainer, academic, project designer or management. Most of what goes on in the name of constructivism is not knowledge building. Knowledge building requires deep constructivism (Scardamalia and Bereiter, 2002) of the type described above. It is the key to ideas improvement and innovation, based on the solution of genuine problems of understanding.

In deliberately pursuing such collective epistemic goals a specific type of agency is required, namely epistemic agency (Scardamalia, 2002). Epistemic agency is the 'way in' to cross-cultural professional engagement and knowledge construction. It recognises that knowledge is constructed by and continually improved upon by people, and that responsibility for the success of a group/community effort is distributed across all the members rather than being concentrated in the leader or the few. They have collective cognitive responsibility. The format of new interactions has to be designed not just with practitioners in mind, but with the group.

The iterative nature of epistemic agency involves questions and problems of understanding, controversies and conflicts. These are the moving force for progressive knowledge building. The questioning and criticism of accepted practices is the basis for improvement. The iterative nature of epistemic agency will consist of a revised idea, which then becomes the object of a further cycle of knowledge work (Scardamalia, 2000). Knowledge building communities, it is argued, flourish on this dialectic. But these are not only cognitive or conceptual processes. The creation of mutual trust and understanding by strong socialisation are needed in knowledge creation. Community members have to jointly articulate and advance problems/questions and theories or ideas. Such agency entails sustained working and collaborative responsibility for the advancement of the inquiry, rather than the pursuit of individual learning agendas. The outcome results in more than the sharing of knowledge, the knowledge itself is refined and transformed through the discursive practices of the community. Reconstruction and invention are the dual characteristics of epistemic agency and knowledge building by direct engagement with specific knowledge problems.

Although knowledge advancement processes are fundamentally social in nature, individual activity is also emphasised; not individuals separately, but individuals acting as part of the community's activities. Individual initiative embedded within community activities recognises the significance of both academic and practitioner, and the importance of their cultural-historical backgrounds. This socio-individual

dialectic of epistemic agency draws attention to the importance and need to move across academic-practitioner boundaries. Trainers/educators have to seek, rather than avoid, the tensions inherent in academic-practitioner interactions. Education/training needs to build on the recognition of the cognitive, social and iterative nature of epistemic agency.

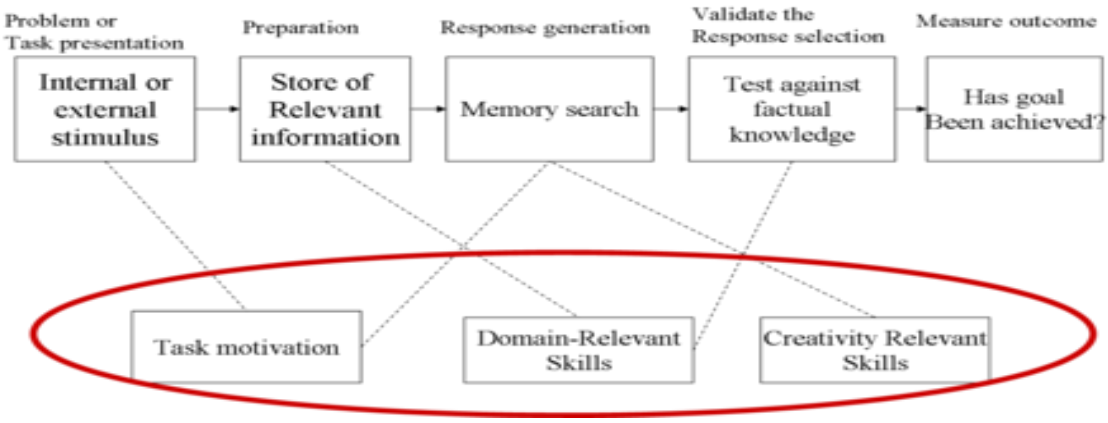
Epistemic agency also emphasises a dialectic between personal ideas and ideas 'out there' (propositional, conceptual knowledge) involving some resolution and making such resolutions public. Knowledge advancement requires making references to, building on as well as critiquing authoritative sources. This principle focuses on the importance of keeping in touch with the growing edge of knowledge in the field, of educators/trainers being domain experts. In practice, it reminds all participants to build on established knowledge in the process of building new knowledge. The knowledge building model is based on all members of the community driving progressive inquiry and knowledge creation by engaging with real ideas and authentic problems of concern to the community. The model emphasises the dialectical interaction between different forms of knowledge: tacit, procedural, declarative and propositional (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 2002). Shared conceptualisation and shared construction of conceptual artefacts arise from dialectical interaction of all forms of knowledge within processes of solving authentic problems, questioning objectives and existing ideas and advancing communal knowledge. What is missing is an emphasis on knowledge 'in the world' (this one, shared world), that is on conceptual artefacts (Bereiter, 2002). The development of a 'knowledge society' and knowledge management has given rise to dealing with knowledge as an entity or commodity that can be systematically produced and (eventually) shared between members of a community (Lam 2010). The concept of knowledge building offers the opportunity for collective work for the improvement of conceptual artefacts that solve problems, originate new thoughts and advance communal knowledge.

Knowledge communities involve a great deal of autonomy and self-regulation rather than external regulation (Bereiter, 2002). Training interventions over

structure and over manage learning with the result that they forfeit the essential characteristics of knowledge building, particularly epistemic agency, collective cognitive responsibility and authentic problems. The knowledge building communities' model challenges us to democratise the process of education and training. The model offers a useful way of analysing what is important in terms of the flow of knowledge across cultures and for enabling mutual knowledge creation. Organisations should pay much more attention to culture and socio-cognitive factors in order to enable the development of knowledge. 'It has to do with organising the right conditions for knowledge creation, rather than with managing knowledge. An organisation cannot influence knowledge creation directly: it can only try to set the conditions that allow knowledge creation to happen' (Von Krogh, 2003; 120).

In addition to the knowledge building theories of Scardamalia and Bereiter, Amabile's (1996) componential model of creativity also examines how knowledge building is achieved in communities. There are five basic stages in the process as illustrated in Figure 2.3. The stages also act recursively, returning to steps 1, 2, 3, or 4 if the outcome of the process is not successful. The model begins with stage one where a problem is identified or a task perceived as a problem. This acts as an internal or external stimulus to action. The second stage in the process is a preparatory phase in which information is gathered about the problem or task. In stage three, the knowledge obtained in stage two is used in conjunction with the local environment to generate some possible responses. The various responses that have been generated at stage four are tested against factual knowledge, either from authoritative sources, other group members, or external sources of various kinds. This stage can be related to chapter seven of the thesis where the qualitative findings in Chapter six have been tested through a process of triangulation in chapter seven. Stage five of this model presents three possible outcomes as illustrated in Figure 2.3 where the problem can be solved, in which case no further action need be taken.

Figure 2.3 Componential Model of Creativity



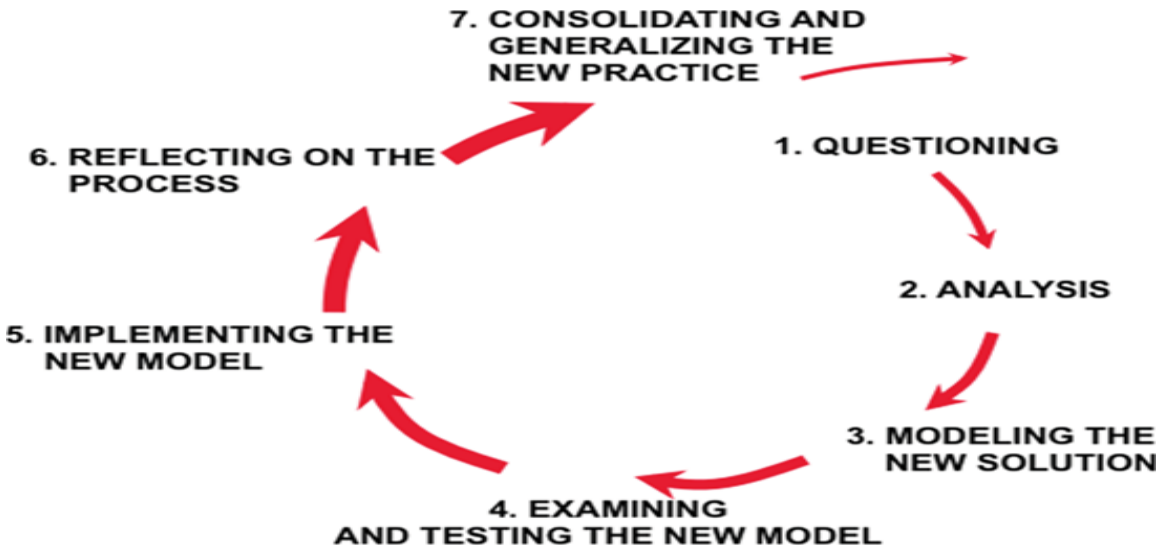
Source: Amabile (1996)

The critical point in Amabile's work is the acknowledgment that the creative process is a continuum from low levels of creativity to 'ground breaking and significant work' (1996, p. 82) something observed with the Romanian managers throughout the working process. This concurs with the view of Buchanan (2002) who claimed that individuals have degrees of creativity within their corpus of work, and that this, 'implies that it is possible for anyone with normal cognitive abilities to produce work that is creative to some degree in some domain of endeavour' (Amabile, 1996, p.82). Taken together, these factors are important because some critics of knowledge building theory insist that knowledge creation is only achieved within an individual's corpus of work which cannot be innovative. This should be identified in the findings of this research with the managers as to whether they were able to create significant knowledge outside the sphere of their work roles and responsibilities.

Finally, the expansive learning cycle as developed by Engestrom (2001) through his studies of innovation in organisations is of relevance here. This model is strongly rooted in the tradition of cultural historical activity theory. 'It seeks not only to analyse but also change the learning and working practices of organisations' (Paavola et al 2004: 558). This theory views an individual as being situated in a

complex activity system, and in essence places the activity system of individuals as always embedded in a social context.

Figure 2.4 Expansive Learning Cycle



Source: Adopted from Engeström and Sannino (2010, p. 8)

The model has seven stages as illustrated in Figure 2.4, these are:

1. Questioning, in which accepted practices or knowledge are questioned by an individual
2. Analysis of the problem identified in the questioning stage;
3. Modelling of the proposed solution;
4. Critical examination of the solution;
5. Implementation of the new model;
6. Reflective evaluation of the proposed solution; and
7. Consolidation of the new solution into some form of practice.

Engestrom envisioned this seven stage process as happening in learning communities or teams. Therefore by stage two, activities of other members of the learning community could be incorporated, and the process would involve other team members. This would in turn create a group activity system focused on solving

the problem. According to Hakkarainen et al (2004 p115) 'Engeström does not envision this process as having a fixed order, despite the numbering of the stages. Instead, it is viewed as an ideal version of what might happen. Reality may differ, and the process can start at any point in the cycle'. Paavola et al (2004:260) claims 'the intent is to guide members of the workplace community to reflect on their mutual activities with the help of the researcher'.

The theories of knowledge creation presented in this section could offer a possible theoretical explanation to underpinning the process which might emerge in working with the RBP managers. This will be examined further in chapter six.

2.7 Alternatives to knowledge transfer

Recognition of the limitations of the term 'knowledge transfer' and its conceptualisation in the literature has seen the development of alternative conceptualisations of the process. Two examples are briefly considered, namely knowledge transfer as *translation* (Holden, 2002; Holden and Kortzfleisch, 2004) and as *migration* (Iles *et al*., 2004). Both are useful examples to highlight the problematic nature of knowledge transfer and to emphasise that the flow and sharing of knowledge is not a transfer process, but rather one of knowledge recreation. Both are concerned with knowledge transfer in a cross-cultural context. They offer a more culturally nuanced understanding of the nature of the flow of knowledge across cultures, emphasising the creation of knowledge rather than its transfer.

Holden (2002) and Holden and Kortzfleisch (2004) have used the science and practice of translation to analyse the transferability of knowledge, emphasising that translation is the oldest universal practice of converting knowledge from one domain (a language group) to another. Translation is seen as a very robust analogue of knowledge transfer and that translation theory provides insight into cross-cultural sharing processes (Holden and Kortzfleisch, 2004: 127). Translation theory can throw light on knowledge transfer processes from a number of perspectives

and the analogy between translation and knowledge transfer draws attention to three important factors about knowledge transfer as translation:

(1) it is a sense making activity;

(2) it is concerned with socio-cognitive activity and the interlingual transfer of knowledge from one individual to another and into social networks/communities;

(3) it is subject to constraints, which affect not just transfer, but rather transferability or the extent to which knowledge can be transferred to others (*ibid.*, p. 133).

Paavola et al. (2004) used models from different disciplines to describe the knowledge creation process; the knowledge creation model of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), the model of knowledge building by Bereiter (2002) and Engeström's model of expansive learning (1999). When comparing models from different disciplines the following points ought to be taken into consideration.

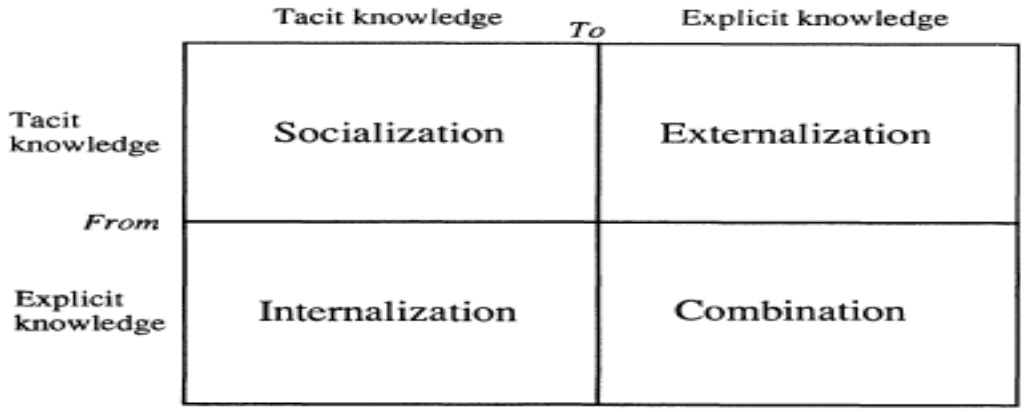
Firstly, the models describe the knowledge creation process at different levels. The model of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1999) with four knowledge creation modes, pertaining chiefly to the organisational level of analysis, that is, organizations as innovation systems with a generic product development process from idea generation to market launch (Schulze and Hoegl, 2006). In doing so they give no information about how groups of people create knowledge, for example in one single meeting. However, recent research showed that all four knowledge creation modes occur in the different innovation phases (ibid), which might make this model also applicable to knowledge creation on lower levels.

Secondly, depending on whether knowledge is viewed as external objects, others view knowledge as something being situated in the brain which is constructed by learning processes, and manifested through actions, shared meanings, routines, systems, papers, (Tsoukas, 2003).

Thirdly, some view the process as the transformation of knowledge using different categories of knowledge. The terms tacit, implicit and explicit knowledge are often

used in knowledge creation models to understand the knowledge creation process. The concept of tacit knowledge was developed by Polanyi (1958), but the number of scientists in business management who use this concept as originally intended, is limited (Tsoukas, 2003). Polanyi developed this concept to make clear that 'we know more than we can tell' (Polanyi, 1958). It was interpreted by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1999) and, since then, is often used differently to the way Polanyi intended. Polanyi wrote about tacit knowing, a process, rather than tacit knowledge, which is a product. Tacit knowing is about things you know how to do without being able to express them, like keeping balance while cycling. The point Polanyi made with his concept was that knowledge is personally bounded and cannot be managed. Tacit knowledge cannot be 'captured', 'translated', or 'converted' but only displayed and manifested, in what we do (Tsoukas, 2003: 410). Tacit knowledge as interpreted by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) is actually *implicit knowledge* (Wilson, 2002). Implicit knowledge is unexpressed knowledge, that is expressible. *Explicit knowledge*, then, is expressed knowledge or information (Wilson, 2002).

Figure 2.5 Model of knowledge creating organisations



Source: Nonaka and Takeuchi (1999)

The model of knowledge transfer as translation is extended to incorporate Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) model of knowledge-creating organisations as shown in Figure 2.5, which emphasises four interactive methods of knowledge creation: socialisation, externalisation, combination and internalisation, relating to the creation of tacit or explicit knowledge. The successful implementation of the

knowledge is a measure of its convertibility. Nonaka and Takeuchi are critical of the Western tradition in epistemology that one-sidedly emphasises conceptual and explicit knowledge. The basis of their model is an epistemological distinction between two sorts of knowledge: tacit and explicit. Knowledge transfer as translation emphasises the importance of language, communication and interaction in successful knowledge transfer and links with the literature on learning networks and communities of practice as means of knowledge sharing (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger *et al*., 2002).

In this way they explore culture and cross-cultural management from a knowledge perspective, proposing that cross-cultural management is viewed as a form of knowledge management, and culture as an organisational knowledge resource. Knowledge transfer is then critically seen as a form of cross-cultural *translation* (Iles *et al*., 2004: 646). Transferability, like translation is 'a kind of knowledge conversion which seeks to create common cognitive ground among people, among whom differences in language are a barrier to comprehension' (Holden and Kortzfleisch, 2004: 129). The cross-cultural worker is then conceptualised as a form of knowledge worker.

In addition to such concerns over whether knowledge of Western management practices can be unproblematically transferred Iles *et al*. (2004: 659) raise the question 'as to whether it is actually appropriate to attempt to 'transfer' Western organisational knowledge and practices to other countries facing different challenges in different contexts. Using the case study of human resource management (HRM) in Mauritius they identify some of the limits to cross-cultural knowledge management, emphasise the significance of *cultural specificities* and suggest that the transfer of knowledge and technology in HRM 'may not only not be feasible; it may also be undesirable' (651). Rather than the wholesale importation of models of managing people designed in other socio-cultural contexts to address other problems, they suggest HRM responses would need to take the specific needs of the Mauritian context into account.

They develop a more theoretically-informed model of what they term 'knowledge migration' across cultures, based on adaptive activity systems theory. Knowledge migration is described as the movement of knowledge from one domain to another across knowledge boundaries (644). They emphasise that these domains are worldview defined and conceptual. The nature of knowledge migration is thus clearly defined through what they refer to as 'constructivist ontologies and epistemologies'. In this case, knowledge migration cannot be a transfer process. 'The process of knowledge flow in cross-cultural contexts is better seen as 'knowledge migration', as the process is more akin to 'translation' or local re-creation of knowledge' (659).

Very simply, the basic knowledge cycle model depicts three fundamental phases of the knowledge creation process:

1. knowledge migration
2. knowledge appreciation
3. and knowledgeable action.

These are influenced by cognitive properties that guide organisations in the way that they function, though cognitive influences, purposes, and interests. Thus the way that knowledge migration occurs is conditioned by cognitive influence, knowledge appreciation by cognitive purpose, and knowledgeable action by cognitive interest. As Iles *et al.* describe, whether Mauritian practitioners identify Western knowledge as valid is conditioned by the cognitive influences acting on them, such as social and political influences. Whether they appreciate the value of knowledge is conditioned by cognitive purposes, be they cybernetic, rational or ideological. Whether they act on this knowledge is conditioned by their interests, which may be technical, practical or emancipatory. The movement of knowledge is subject to redefinition every time it migrates. 'Knowledge migration occurs through the development of interconnections between the worldviews of the actors, so that new knowledge is locally generated' (p. 659).

Knowledge migration thus has resemblance to the idea of cross-cultural knowledge transfer being a form of knowledge translation. There is a similar emphasis on communication, interaction, socio-cognitive activity, collective sense making,

cultural-historical specificities, constraints and the re-creation of knowledge. Theoretically they serve the knowledge management community not just 'as a useful source of concepts for elucidating inefficiencies in cross cultural knowledge transfer' (Holden and Kortzfleisch: 130), but to emphasise that the 'transfer' of knowledge may well be inappropriate (Iles *et al*., 2004).

2.8 Knowledge in Communities of Practice

The general concept of a community of practice refers to the process of social interaction and learning that occurs when people who have a common interest in a subject or problem collaborate over an extended period to share ideas, find solutions and build innovations. The term was introduced by Lave and Wenger (1991), who used it in relation to situated learning at the Institute for Research on Learning. Later, in 1998, Wenger extended the concept and applied it to other contexts, including organisational settings. More recently communities of practice have become associated with knowledge management, as they have been seen as ways of developing social capital, nurturing new knowledge, sharing existing knowledge and stimulating innovation within organisations.

In the knowledge management literature the concept of 'communities of practice' has been one of the most popularly discussed. It has been used to explain the dynamics of organisational knowledge processes (DeFillipi and Arthur, 1998; Baumard, 1999; Pan and Scarborough, 1999; Brown and Duguid, 2001), and many writers suggest that developing communities of practice may be key to the success of knowledge management initiatives (Bate and Roberts, 2002; Ward, 2000; Wenger et al., 2002).

In a business organisation context, communities of practice are groups of individuals who have a work-related activity in common, and consequently have some common knowledge, a sense of community identity, and an element of overlapping values. In a large organisation, it may be a group of IT workers, HR practitioners or technicians who work in different areas on the same site, on different sites, or in multinational companies, similar type groups who operate in

different countries. These groupings are typically informal in nature, developing out of the communication and interaction necessarily part of most work activities. They would not, therefore, be represented as part of a formal structure and would not appear on an organisation chart.

The community of practice concept is based on two central premises: practice-based perspective on knowledge, and group-based character of organisational activity. The relevance of the practice–based perspective stems from the assumption in the community of practice literature, that knowing and doing are inseparable, as undertaking specific tasks requires the use and development of embodied knowledge. Brown and Duguid (1991: 43), argue that 'learning-in working is an occupational necessity' and that work activities also involve 'the situated production of understanding.'

The group-based character of organisational activity assumes that when people share a practice, they will share 'know-how' or tacit knowledge, and as communities are defined by their communal activity, they are likely to have communal 'know-how' developed from that practice. Further, if shared tacit knowledge makes it possible to 'know-that' or explicit knowledge effectively, such communities can also be effective at circulating explicit knowledge. Empirical studies by (Barley 1996; Hutchins 1991 and Orr 1996) suggest that communities of practice do operate in this way, holding and sharing knowledge collectively because of their shared practice. Orr (1996), cites the example of technicians who are presumed to work alone, when, in fact, they rely heavily on the knowledge within the group. While this knowledge may be distributed unevenly across the group, members can utilise it because of their common base of tacit knowledge.

Work on such communities also helps to add an extra dimension to understanding the social reach of knowledge. Strauss's (1978, 1982, 1984) sociology of academic practice indicates that practice not only binds together small, tight communities, it also allows extensive academic communities, most of whose members will never know one another, to form and communicate. Strauss calls these 'social worlds', but their relation to knowledge is better understood through Knorr Cetina's (1999) term

'epistemic cultures'. In an ethnography-based study and analysis, Knorr Cetina explored the extensive flow of knowledge across such communities that 'create and warrant knowledge'. Using microbiologists and physicists, the study reveals that communication and collaboration between colleagues in these disciplines is global, because of the common practice of all members of the group and the understanding they share. However, this does not necessarily mean that communication is uniform across these global structures, and it is possible for small subsets of disciplines working closely together to develop distinct practices that may create more effective local communication but present barriers to global communication. Consequently, new practices and knowledge emerging from these subsets will not spread as readily or widely as insights built on settled knowledge.

The notion of knowledge-sharing and its significance has more recently been a focus of attention, and the benefits of developing knowledge sharing communities have become increasingly realised. In organisations where knowledge is shared communities are nurtured, and the process leads to greater productivity. Research has proven that knowledge sharing organisations are working more efficiently and dynamically by fostering a working environment that builds employee satisfaction and loyalty (Davenport and Prusak 2000, Draghici and Draghici 2008). According to Draghici and Draghici (2008:2), writing on the immense potential of building a knowledge share culture in a virtual organisation,; 'A strong virtual organisation has to identify the strategic options for building the knowledge sharing culture in order to become competitive'. Setting up a virtual community within a structure such as the EU could give greater opportunity for sharing good practice, particularly for those countries seeking accession. In the context of this research the RBP would have benefitted greatly from being part of a virtual knowledge sharing community.

Communities of practice are highly dynamic (Roberts 2006, Amin and Roberts 2008, Kala and Pak 2011) evolving as new members join when existing members leave, and as the knowledge and practices of the community evolves with changing circumstances. Lave and Wenger (1991) used the term 'legitimate peripheral participation' to characterise the process by which people learn and become socialised into the community. Within this process, newcomers acquire the

knowledge required through gradually increasing levels of 'participation' in community activities, during which time they simultaneously move from being 'peripheral' members to become more central and 'legitimate' members of the community. Informal learning from other members of the community is a key element to this process, as Trowler and Turner (2002: 242) suggest, 'learning to become a member is far more a question of socialisation than of formal learning'.

The concept of legitimate peripheral participation was abandoned by Wenger in 1998, in favour of the idea of the inherent tension in a set of four fundamental dualities. Of these the one that has been the focus of most interest, probably because of its possible link to knowledge management, is the duality 'participation vs reification'. Wenger describes the 'negotiation of meaning' as how the world is experienced and engagement in it as meaningful, and if all change involves a process of learning, then effective changes processes facilitate negotiation of meaning. That negotiation consists of two interrelated components, reification and participation. Reification involves taking that which is abstract and turning it into a concrete or understandable form that can be represented in written or symbolic form. It is essential for preventing informal group activity from obstructing co-ordination and mutual understanding, but if insufficiently supported it will be unable to support the learning process. The second element in the negotiation of meaning, participation, requires active involvement in social processes, with participants not only translating the reified description/prescription into embodied experience, but in recontextualising its meaning. Wenger describes the relationship between reification and participation as a dialectical one, neither element can be considered in isolation if the learning/change process is to be helpfully understood. 'Explicit knowledge is… not freed from the tacit. Formal processes are not freed from the informal. In terms of meaningfulness, the opposite is more likely. In general, viewed as reification, a more abstract formulation will require more intense and specific participation to remain meaningful, not less' (Wenger, 1998 :67).

In terms of knowledge processes, communities of practice can underpin levels of organisational innovativeness through supporting and encouraging the creation,

development and use of knowledge. Orr (1990) refers to how the community of practice that existed among photocopier repair engineers allowed them to develop their knowledge and understanding through solving problems that could not be corrected by simply following the instructions contained in the machine manual. Other advantages communities can provide, arises from the common knowledge members possess, and their sense of collective identity and system of shared values, means they have the potential to facilitate individual and group learning and the sharing of knowledge within the community (Brown and Duguid, 1998; DeFillipi and Arthur, 1998; Hildreth et al. 2000; Bate and Robert, 2002). However, these advantages do appear to be confined within the particular practice, and Knorr Cetina's (1999) study suggests that different scientific practices produce quite distinct epistemic cultures, and that the sort of knowledge which flows readily in one culture, will not flow uninhibitedly between two. The distinctive practices that internally bind the epistemic cultures, simultaneously divide them, and the two together do not form an epistemically homogeneous 'scientific community'.

There are contradictions and difficulties in managing communities of practice, and these stem from their fundamentally informal, emergent, and somewhat ad hoc nature. These characteristics mean they are not easily amenable to top-down control – 'communities of practice are autonomous, self-managing systems, which can exist and flourish without the need for senior management support' (Baumard, 1999). Attempts to explicitly manage these communities may have an adverse effect on the knowledge processes such efforts are intended to support and develop. Attempts to formalise a community may introduce rigidity which inhibits its innovativeness or adaptability. In general terms, the knowledge management literature advocates two ways in which communities should be managed. The first involves employing a 'light touch', and the second, that all management interventions should reinforce the essential attributes of communities that make them so effective at facilitating knowledge processes. Advocates of the 'light touch' approach include McDermott (1999), who emphasises the need for organisations to develop natural knowledge communities which are not formalised and Ward (2000), who argues that communities require to be tended and nurtured rather than commanded and controlled. Brown and Duguid (1991) and Stamps (2000)

emphasise the importance of practice-based, peer-supported learning methods, rather than formalised classroom-based methods. Brown and Duguid (1991) advise avoidance of privileged formal objectified knowledge to the detriment of 'non-canonical' tacit, practice-based knowledge developed in the community. Baumard (1999), stresses the importance of continuity due to the significant amount of time required for communities of practice to develop, and McDermott (1999), suggests the reinforcement of each communities' system of self-management, strengthening existing mechanisms for social interaction, and delegation of adequate authority to allow them to decide what knowledge is important and how it should be organised and shared. In effect, the majority of advice suggests that the best way to manage communities is to provide them with the autonomy to manage themselves.

In the knowledge management literature on communities of practice, they have generally been presented in a very positive light, suggesting that in terms of knowledge processes they are largely beneficial to organisations. This has provided a somewhat one-sided analysis of communities, so it is reasonable to redress this by examining two areas which have been the subject of some criticism. The first of these is the manner in which power and conflict can shape the internal dynamics of communities, and the second is the possible development of a 'blinkering effect' which may inhibit innovation and interaction between communities.

Communities of practice have inherent tensions built into them, which results in an 'unequal distribution of power', (Lave and Wenger, 1991, 42), and further produce what Fox (2000), describes as 'power conflicts.' The uneven distribution of power results from the continuity process where more experienced members have greater influence than newcomers, and while communities do not have a formal hierarchical structure, this does not prevent inequality.

Another possible source of conflict arises from 'the contradictory nature of collective social practice' (Lave and Wenger, 1991:58), which suggests that while members of a community work together and co-operate, they are, to a degree, in competition with each other inside their organisation. Power conflict assumes a greater importance when communities are forced by external factors to

contemplate change. When this change requires a community's practices/knowledge to adapt, the threat to the status quo can have contradictory implications for different members of the community (Fox, 2000). Long-serving members may view such a change as a threat to their status, power and knowledge, while others may see it as an opportunity to enhance theirs.

While the collective sense of identity and values create a bond that facilitates the development of trust and knowledge sharing, if the sense of community identity becomes too strong, it may provide a basis for exclusion, where those not part of the community are ignored, and their knowledge not considered to be relevant or important (Alvesson, 2000; Baumard, 1999, Lam 2010). Such circumstances can result in a community becoming inward-looking, and unreceptive to ideas generated externally. This can lead to a community's search processes being limited rather than extensive, with consequent negative implications for the community's innovativeness. An example of this cited by Starbuck and Millikin (1988), refers to the Challenger Space Shuttle accident, when NASA engineers ignored important information about O-ring erosion, as based on the assumptions they had, such a situation was regarded as presenting a minute risk. Inward-looking communities may not only neglect external ideas, but also people. With their strong sense of identity they may become exclusive clubs or 'cliques' (Wenger et al., 2003), where membership is tightly controlled, and the factors that define a community's identity, used to exclude others. As with the neglect of external ideas, such practices can compound the community's inability to consider and absorb new, external knowledge and ideas.

Generally, the knowledge management literature appears to support the view that the benefits organisations derive from communities of practice outweigh any detrimental effects. The knowledge sharing and knowledge creation in communities underpin individual and organisational level learning processes and support high levels of organisational innovativeness, and the shared sense of collective identity and overlapping values, create comradeship and loyalty. Conversely, issues of power and conflict may inhibit the facilitation of knowledge

processes, and if the sense of common identity becomes too strong, it may inhibit intercommunity processes and have negative implications for an organisation's innovativeness.

For the purposes of this research culture and cross- cultural management from a knowledge perspective is explored, proposing that cross-cultural management is viewed as a form of knowledge management, and culture as an organisational knowledge resource. Knowledge transfer is then critically seen as a form of cross-cultural *translation* (Iles *et al*., 2004: 646). Transferability, like translation is 'a kind of knowledge conversion which seeks to create common cognitive ground among people, among whom differences in language are a barrier to comprehension' (Holden and Kortzfleisch, 2004: 129). The cross-cultural worker is then conceptualised as a form of knowledge worker.

2.9 Conclusion

The chapter has presented a synopsis of the creation of knowledge in a knowledge building community, and in a wider context the cross-cultural knowledge transfer literature in various organisational contexts. The number of theories, models and ideas presented in the literature are many. What is clear from the literature is the complexity of theorisation on knowledge. To conclude, the following statement puts this research in a wider context of the EU and highlights the emergent differential between 'Western trainers and local participants' in developing training interventions, where the significance of knowledge has not been understood.

> *'Over the period of 12 years of training intervention from the West into EE, there have been gradual, yet definite shifts in the status of providers and clients towards growing equivalence in the organization and delivery of training programmes. The data clearly suggests a gradually narrowing status differential between Western trainers and local participants and an increasing sophistication in the learning adventures of EE managers. From a Western perspective, this has involved the devolution of critical areas of programme ownership to indigenous agencies, as well as restricting participation to an exclusive body of EE representatives who are most likely to 'add value' to programme content. From an EE perspective, this has meant a growing*

resistance to being patronized by Western trainers, and a preparedness to bring programme content to life by injecting elements of their own knowledge into the learning experience. (Michailova and Hollinshead' 2009: 128)

It is the *'injecting elements of their own knowledge in the learning experience'* that this research aims to do with the RBP. The Romanian managers have social values and interests, varying within and across cultural and historical contexts, which structure their epistemic interactions. Comprised of their work, scientific practice is diverse, dynamic, and woven into a complex social fabric. 'Justificatory standards are of a piece with all this, responsive to social values and influences' (Fagan, 2009: 11). But what is crucial here is that within a line of inquiry, 'a justificatory standard' emerges gradually from the interplay of diverse socio-cultural factors and 'resistance' to collective human efforts. In other words epistemic justification lies within the procedural standards that are established in the production of knowledge. 'As social structures, values and interests change over time, due to many contingent factors, standards demarcating justified from unjustified claims change in correlated ways'.

It is against this mainstream backdrop that this thesis seeks to make a contribution. The research challenges the main assumptions underlying the literature in the following manner:

1. Rather than view knowledge as an objective, transferable commodity, this thesis claims that organisational knowledge is always the outcome of interactive social processes and contestation and is knowledge-in-the-making. The centrality of discourse, in its various forms, to knowledge creation has come to be recognised throughout the sociology and philosophy of knowledge literature (Harre and Gillett, 1994). Knowledge emerges out of debate, dialectics and collective inquiry.
2. There is an emphasis that the focus on the instrumental value of knowledge and an organisations competitive and sustainable advantage overlooks the more fundamental relationship between knowing and organising (Lanzara and Patriotta, 2001: 945). Here, the suggestion is there are beyond epistemological

differences between the approaches to knowledge, existential differences (Heidegger, 1992; Capurro, 2005). The differing epistemological assumptions concern the nature of agents of knowing, conceptions of knowledge and learning. Existential presuppositions are associated with issues related to one's identity, being, belonging and reciprocal social recognition (Packer and Goioechea, 2000). Successful engagement in knowledge creating efforts necessitates that these existential challenges are dealt with. The concern in using a cross-disciplinary approach to the literature was not merely to create new ideas but to problematise analytic practice. In particular the concern is to work collaboratively with the RBP to assist in the creation of new knowledge ethically and for the sole benefit of developing the organisation for change and sustainability.

3. It recognises that standards for epistemic justification can be located within the historical unfolding of scientific inquiry/ knowledge production practices. On such a view, scientific knowledge is conceived as resulting from interactions among epistemic agents. The Romanian managers have social values and interests, varying within and across cultural and historical contexts, which structure their epistemic interactions. Comprised of their work, scientific practice is diverse, dynamic, and woven into a complex social fabric. 'Justificatory standards are of a piece with all this, responsive to social values and influences' (Fagan, 2009: 11). But what is crucial here is that within a line of inquiry, 'a justificatory standard' emerges gradually from the interplay of diverse socio-cultural factors and 'resistance' to collective human efforts. In other words epistemic justification lies within the procedural standards that are established in the production of knowledge.

4. In problematising my practice and the practice of the RBP managers the relevant model of knowledge creation in the context of knowledge building theory will be identified. The models of knowledge building theory presented in this chapter will be reviewed further in the findings chapter to establish which corresponding model of KB has emerged.

CHAPTER THREE

Romania: Borders and Transition to the EU

3.1 Introduction

This chapter contextualises the research, giving justification for this study, and looks at those aspects of Romania that are especially important in understanding its recent development, by locating the institutional development and mission of the Romanian Border Police within this analysis. Rather than take the nature of the border police organisation for granted (Britain, for example, does not have a specialised uniformed border police in the same way that Romania does), the chapter outlines some of the ways in which the idea of policing the borders of the nation emerged and the specific institutional forms that have developed in Romania to do this. By treating the nature of the organisations involved in knowledge transfer as problematic a conscious effort has been made to avoid some of the simplicities and stereotypes about institutions and countries which have characterised much of the literature about international knowledge transfer in the past. The chapter also explains the development of Romania's accession to the European Union, and charts the history of the EU-funding mechanisms, and argues that this aid has sometimes hindered the development of organisations in providing rigid Western management development programmes. This presents the traditional EU funded module of knowledge transfer to Eastern Europe from the West, as opposed to this research, which approaches OCD as only possible if organisations create their own knowledge. The chapter finally touches on the complexities of EU-funding in Romania and its impact. To understand the political and institutional context of recent knowledge transfer to Romania this section will argue that six components of the Romania situation are important. These are that;

1. Romania, like other 'Eastern Europe' states was a late developing nation.
2. That it developed in a border zone characterised by instability, and population movement.
3. Romania has struggled to create a modern social and economic structure.
4. Nationalism has been a prominent feature of its development.
5. Romania has been characterised by considerable political instability.

6. Romania (like other 'border' areas in Europe) has always had an ambiguous relationship with 'Western Europe' and that this has been continued into its more recent relationships with the EU.

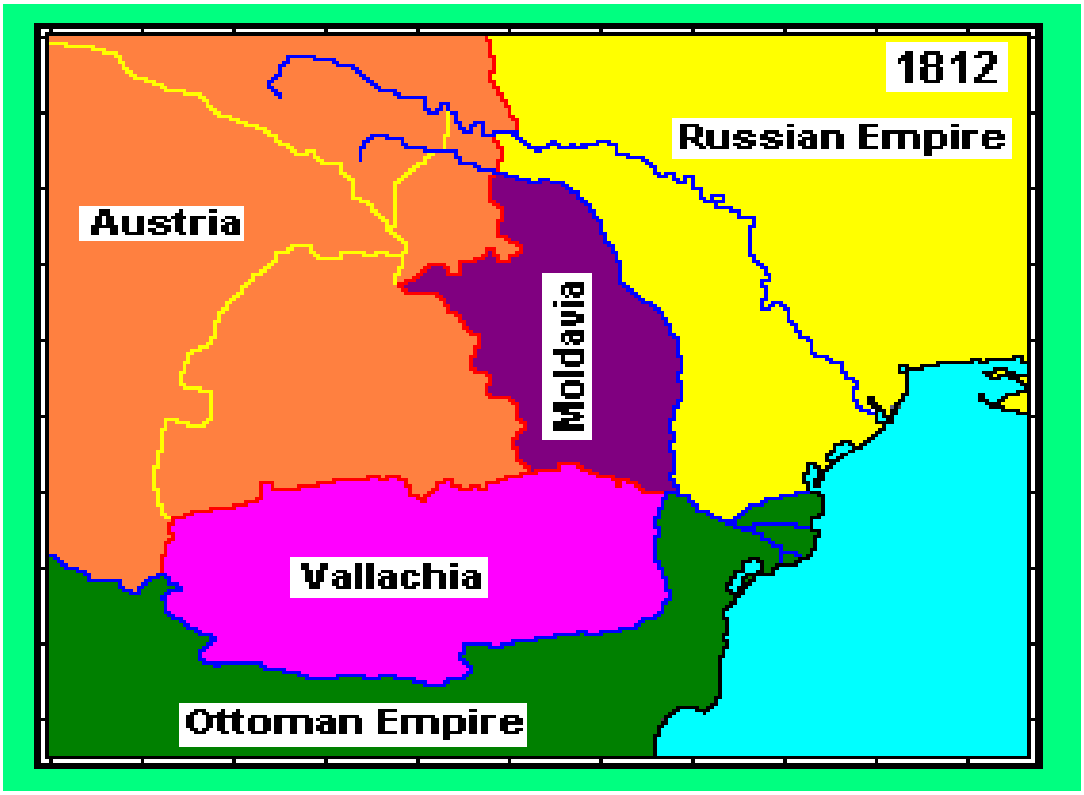
3.2 Romania as a Late Developing State

Writing on the history of Romania, Giurescu (1972) affirms that in 1800 neither Romania nor any other independent country existed in 'central', 'eastern' and 'south-eastern Europe'. This area was essentially under the control of three great empires – the Russian, Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman. In the next two centuries a struggle for national independence developed. The first empire to come under pressure and fragment was the Ottoman Empire. Groups in the area of modern day Romania took advantage of this to secure the independence of Romania, but Romania was one of a number of states that emerged this way. This produced a paradox that each state was justified in terms of 'national uniqueness' but they were all to a considerable extent a product of common processes. Moreover the fact that these states, in European terms, emerged relatively late in an area that was socially less developed and 'peripheral' to Western Europe meant that they found it hard to establish the same degree of legitimacy that states in Western Europe have achieved.

Prior to independence Romania had comprised of the regions Wallachia (also known as Vallachia), and Moldova in the Carpathian Mountain region as shown in Figure 3. As part of the Ottoman Empire, these were governed in 1800 by Greek princes of 'Hospodars'. Romanian independence came in several stages. Rebellions in the 1820s led to the two principalities gaining independence within the Ottoman Empire. In the 1850s the Crimean War put a strain on the Ottoman Empire as Russia clashed with the Ottomans, Britain and France (Giurescu 1972, Boia 2001, Klepper 2002, Kumin 2009). Within the principalities key groups took advantage of the Ottoman problems to elect Alexandru Ioan Cuza as prince and to create a unified Principality of Romania. This was recognised by the Sultan in 1861, but Romania still remained nominally part of the Ottoman Empire. In the 1870s war with the Ottoman Empire led to a further opportunity to free 'Romania' and in June 1878,

under the Treaty of Berlin, it became a fully independent state (Boia 2001, Klepper 2002, Gallagher 2004, Light 2006). Thus although nationalists claim that 'Romania' has a long history that predates its formal independence the Romanian state has had a formal history that lasts less than a century and a half. Equally although nationalists claim that it is a product of a national struggle for independence its actual emergence was assisted by conditions created by great power conflicts. Independence actually needed great power leverage and friendship. Some of these tensions continue to underpin Romania's situation in the twenty first century (Boia 2001, Klepper 2002, Villiers 2009).

Figure 3.1 Romania in 1812



Source: Matley. I. (1970), Romania; a Profile.

3.3 Romania and its Borders

Historically the political process has largely been responsible for, and has had the most influence on, defining a nation's borders. Sometimes this is through agreements after wars, or by having their borders imposed by external forces such as colonial occupying powers. Geographical features make the political process of deciding on borders easier, such as the use of a mountain range or a river to define

a border, region or country. Many examples can be found where this has been the case (Petersen 2006, Scott 2006). The Pyrenees have long separated the French and the Spanish, and the Alps have helped make the Swiss into a single nation. Moreover, when borders are defined they often take into account natural linguistic and cultural boundaries. An example can be seen in Belgium, being half Flemish and half French, because the southern part of the old Netherlands was Austrian and the northern part was Spanish. The land under Netherlands became Belgium after the Napoleonic wars, but happened to include Wallonia, the French speaking territory. Portugal is about the only European country to have retained its territorial integrity intact since Roman times despite having been taken over by the Moors and Spain for a time (Scott 2006).

For political reasons alone Romania's borders have been contentious and uncertain. Writers on Romanian history (Gallagher 2005, Scott 2006, Kumin 2009) claim Romanian's have been unfairly treated when it comes to decisions on their borders. When politicians have carved up the regions of Eastern Europe after each major war, Romania has fallen foul of inequitable decisions on border changes (Gallagher 2004, Scott 2006, Kumin 2009). Unlike the British Isles Romania is not an island, nor does it have its borders with only two countries. It is landlocked with the exception of a small coastal strip on the Black Sea. Drawing on the geographical features it is evident that natural features have been used to define the 'nation'. Transylvania has historically been a stronghold of the Hungarians and is cradled by the Carpathian horseshoe, faces west, and is isolated and protected from Walachia in the south and Moldavia in the east. The Carpathian Mountain range has made it possible for Transylvania to remain predominately Hungarian (Scott 2006, Villiers 2009). To the south of Bucharest lies the border between Romania and Bulgaria and is defined by the Danube. Romania's borders are of paramount importance to the EU, and millions of Euros have been injected into the country to get the borders fit for purpose. In 2004 Bulgaria and Romania joined NATO. According to NATO Romania is the 'gateway' to the west for terrorists from the Middle East and Asia. Additionally, 'the Black Sea is now ringed, on one side, by alliance countries and, on the other, by former Soviet states with varying degrees of instability and security problems' (Petersen 2006). There is also a problem with illegal immigrants trying to

find work, human trafficking, and drug traffickers attempting to gain access to Europe by means of the blue borders (water borders) of the Black Sea or the Danube (Gallagher 2004, Scott 2006).

Historically Romania's borders have been fraught with changes. Understanding the patterns of world history offers a clearer perspective into Romania's changing borders. From 1878, Romania consisted of three provinces, Moldavia, Wallachia and Dubruja, and this situation remained static until the end of the second Balkan War in 1913 (Giurescu 1972, Boia 2001, Klepper 2002). As a result of this conflict with neighbouring Bulgaria, on the conclusion of the war at the Treaty of Bucharest in 1913, Romania gained Southern Dobrogea from Bulgaria, even though most of the population was not Romanian. In August 1916, Romania entered World War 1 on the side of the triple entente of France, Britain and Russia, following a promise of territorial gains after the war. German forces entered Bucharest later that year and Romania was out of the war. However, with the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Empire in 1918, Romanians in Bucovina declared union with Romania (Giurescu 1972, Boia 2001, Klepper 2002, Villiars 2009). On December 1st of that year, the union of Transylvania with Romania was declared in the Transylvanian town of Alba Iulia. (1st December is now commemorated as a national day in Romania). After protracted bargaining at the Treaty of St.Germain 1919 and the Treaty of Trianon 1920, Romania had gained Transylvania, Basarabia, Bucovina and the eastern part of Banar. The new state became known as Greater Romania (Romania Mare), more than doubling in area (making it the tenth largest state in Europe), and increasing its population from 7.5 million to 16 million (Giurescu 1972, Boia 2001, Klepper 2002, Villiars 2009).

Shortly after the start of the Second World War, Romania's neighbours, who were allied to Germany, were in a position to reclaim territories they had unwillingly surrendered after the First World War. Accordingly, with Hitler's permission, Basarabia and Northern Bucovina returned to the Soviet Union, Northern Transylvania to Hungary, and Southern Dobrogea to Bulgaria. Later in the conflict, Romania entered on the side of Germany and fought against Russia on the eastern

front, but later changed sides and fought with the allies against Germany (Boia 2001, Kumin 2009). At the Yalta conference in 1945, Russia and Britain agreed for the Soviet Union to have a free hand in Romania in exchange for staying out of Greece. Further boundary changes were agreed at the conference, including the confirmation of Transylvania as part of Romania, the retention by Bulgaria of southern Dobrogea, the incorporation of Bucovina into Soviet Ukraine, and Basarabia became the Soviet Republic of Moldova (Boia 2001, Gallagher 2005). These decisions made in 1945 gave Romania new borders which have since remained intact.

Table 3.1 The Impact of Changing Borders on Population

Main Elements of Romanian Development 1878-2007

Year	Population *	% Urban
1878	4.5 million	15%
1914	7.8 million	18%
1921	15.6 million	20%
2007	22.2 million	53%

Source:* Statistics from The National Institute for Research and Development in Informatics 2007(NIRDI)

3.4 Creating a modern social and economic state.

In the late nineteenth century, the level of economic development was low and almost pre-capitalist in nature. Only 3% of the population was employed in industry, with only 15% living in towns. For the vast majority of Romanians living in rural areas and working in agriculture, conditions in the countryside were almost feudal in nature due to the dominance of large, absentee landowners (Boia 2001, Klepper 2002). At the start of the twentieth century, problems of land shortages among a growing and impoverished rural population, resulted in a peasants' uprising (1907) in which many thousands were killed. The Second Balkans War brought recognition of the better conditions enjoyed by peasants in Bulgaria, and increased the pressure for constitutional and agrarian reform (Gallagaher 2005).

Table 3.2 Romania's Per Capita GDP

Per capita GDP (PPP) in recent years
1999 $3,800
2000 - $5,900
2001 - $6,800
2002 - $7,400
2003 - $7,000
2004 - $7,700
2005 - $8,100
2006 - $8,800
2007 - $10,661

Source: Chartered Institute of Accountants World Factbook 2008- Figures shown in US dollars

From independence in 1878 to the start of the Second Balkans War in 1913, there was a steady rise in the population from 4.5 million to 6.5 million. Independent Romania drew on European models for its constitution, parliamentary system, public administration, judicial system, education, universities, and shortly before independence even the language had been westernised, with the Cyrillic alphabet replaced by the Latin one and numerous words of Slavic origin dropped in favour of their French equivalents. After independence, Romania enjoyed about 30 years of relative stability before the turmoil of the peasants revolt, the Balkans War and Wold War I.

After World War I, Romania's ruling elite had to accept that demands from the peasants, who had fought in the army during the war, could no longer be ignored (Klepper 2002, Gallagher 2005). Legislation introduced in 1921 resulted in long-overdue reforms, notably universal male suffrage and agrarian restructuring in which large estates were broken up and the land distributed among the peasants. One of the casualties of these reforms was the Conservative party which disappeared from the political scene in 1922. The boundary changes and reforms resulting from the war considerably increased the country's economic potential. Romania once again became a major producer and exporter of grain, and in the 1930's the country was the fifth largest agricultural producer in the world (Klepper

2002). However, there was increasing economic diversification in an attempt to move away from the domination of agriculture, and new policies were introduced to encourage and support the development of industry. Food processing was the largest industry, and other notable sectors included oil production and refining (oil products were the country's main export), metallurgy, chemicals, engineering, textiles and forestry. Nevertheless, to keep this in perspective, in the early 1930s only 10% of the country was employed in industry compared with 70% in agriculture (Gallagher 2005).

Thereafter, the considerable fluctuations in population have generally been attributable to the border changes in the agreements reached at the conclusion of various conflicts such as the second Balkan War 1914, World War I 1919 and World War II 1945 (Gildea 2003). Another factor, having less effect on the issue, has been the emigration of minority groups. Before World War II, the Jewish population was almost 1 million, but emigration to Israel and the USA has reduced that figure to an estimated 12,000. Under the xenophobic nationalism of the Ceausescu regime (Gildea 2003), many Hungarians and Germans also left the country. Hungarians now comprise 6.6% of the population and Germans 0.3% (NIRDI). In common with other Eastern European countries, the population is declining (by 4.9% between 1990 and 2002) and the current growth rate is -0.127% (NIRDI). At the time of writing this chapter it was anticipated that entry into the EU will facilitate and increase emigration to richer countries. This will certainly be the case in the imminent years (2009-11), as Britain has already seen an influx of Romanian and Bulgarian migrants seeking work and a better standard of living. The Home Secretary Theresa May (2011) recently announced that from 'December 2013 there would be nothing to prevent migrants from the two eastern European countries coming to Britain. Both countries joined the EU in 2007 but strict controls were put in place preventing their residents moving to the UK and other member states. These come to an end in December 2013 but there will be no further controls to stop migrants from Bulgaria and Romania coming to the UK'. She also stated that the Government would be investigating into what attracted migrants to Britain, such as the NHS and benefits system. But the Home Secretary said the Government was still aiming to reduce immigration to the tens of thousands, a key pledge of the Tories' 2010 election

manifesto. According to a British Labour Force sample survey, there are currently 80,000 Romanians living in the UK, but the actual numbers could be larger, according to the report. The perception is that due to large numbers of immigrants Britain's welfare state is at breaking point, and in 2011 the Migration Observatory Report claimed that negative attitudes towards immigration were more common in Britain than in the US or the rest of Europe. They also reported that approximately 75% of the British public are in favour of reducing immigration. This presents a paradox as the purpose of this research was to assist the RBP in developing their organisation to enable stronger border management strategies in preparation for EU accession.

Having presented a synopsis of Romania's history and its changing borders, an understanding of Romania's changing political landscape after the war further explains and contextualises its development to date. In the aftermath of World War II and more boundary changes, Romania become a Communist state, with complete subservience to Stalin and compliance with the cultural transformation and state structural reforms dictated by the Soviets (Gallagher 2005, Siani-Davies 2007). This involved the creation of a new society, recasting Romanian national values, re-writing Romanian history to stress the Slavic influence on the development of the country, and denying or downplaying any Western influences. By sending dissidents to work in forced-labour camps, the Romanian population was terrorised into submission (Gallagher 2005, Siani-Davies 2007).

According to Gallagher (2005) by 1947, the Soviet Union had fully installed the Romanian Communist Party (PCR) in power, and the People's Republic of Romania was proclaimed. The communists set about a complete political, economic, social and cultural transformation of the country, which included the nationalisation of industries, mines, transport banks, cinemas, the abolition of private land ownership, and the collectivisation of agriculture. The market economy was replaced by central planning, with the first Five Year Plan being introduced in 1951. After Stalin's death, and an attempt by Russia to dictate Romanian economic policy, the country started to distance itself from the Soviets, and in 1965 Ceausescu asserted its independence by renaming the country the Socialist Republic of Romania (Deletant 1997,

Gallagher 2005). After a short period of liberalisation and initial popularity, Ceausescu implemented a new wave of censorship and repression, and resorted increasingly to strident and xenophobic nationalism directed particularly at non-Romanian minorities. In the name of national interest, he created a central intelligence system (Securitate) to recruit informers, who would spy and report on all aspects of Romanian life. For years a sole state-run TV channel reported spurious information and propaganda, extolling the achievements of the communist state (Delante 1997, Gallagher 2005). Any economic problems or political tension would be blamed on 'foreign aggressors' and nationalism became a justification for exercising more state control. As part of this process, party and state functions were merged and Romanians had to swear loyalty to both state and party.

Following Soviet leadership, industrialisation was seen as the key to modernisation, and successive plans provided for extensive investment in heavy industry. According to Boia (2001), in 1960, the Russians proposed an economic division within the Soviet Bloc, and Romania was allocated a predominantly agricultural role. This was unacceptable to the Romanian leader (Gheorghiu-Dej) who started to distance the country from the Soviet Union, stressing the Romanian national interests instead. Eventually a campaign of 'de-Russification' led to a 'declaration of independence' in which Romania asserted its rights to determine its own course of development (Gallagher 2005, Siani-Davies 2007).

Dej's successor, Ceausescu, continued to prioritise the expansion of heavy industry, entailing the importing of vast quantities of raw materials, and running up large foreign debts. Production was poor, precluding exports to the Western markets, and consumer goods for the domestic market were virtually ignored, frustrating demands for improvements in the very impoverished standards of living (Delante 1997, Gallagher 2005, Siani-Davies 2007). By 1981, with an underperforming economy and importing food from the West, Romania's foreign debt rose to $10.2 billion (NIRDI). For some unknown reason (possibly national pride), Ceausescu decided to pay off this entire debt ahead of schedule, creating unprecedented austerity and hardship for the ordinary citizen, with drastic food shortages and the rationing of domestic heating and lighting (Klepper 2002, Siani-Davies 2007).

Concurrent to these events, the dictator was razing five kilometres square of the centre of the historic city of Bucharest for the building of an enormous palace, 'House of the People'. Various riots led to the fall and execution of Ceausescu in 1989, but the 'revolution' was peculiar in that despite its transition to a democracy, the country continued to be governed by the former communist elites under the leadership of Ion Iliescu (Siani-Davies 2007). The legacy of Ceausescu was an economy on the verge of collapse, and between 1990 -1992, industrial output fell by 54%, the GDP fell by 25.1% (NIRDI), with unemployment rising from zero to 8.2%. Furthermore, great difficulty was being experienced in creating the institutions necessary for the transition to a market economy. As a consequence of these problems, Romania was the last of the ten former Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries to be awarded the status of a functioning market economy in October 2004 (Siani-Davies 2007).

Following Ceausescu's execution in 1989, the former communist elite (now the PCR) remained in power and continued his nationalistic policies. They understood that in multi-ethnic Romania, nationalism and socialism had a stronger appeal than socialism alone, and even allied themselves to the right-wing chauvinistic parties to carry through these policies. A step-change occurred in 1996 when a treaty was signed with Hungary which finally confirmed Romania's borders. Subsequently, the more democratic and centre-party governments which have been elected, have eased tensions with minority groups by giving assurances they can retain their cultural identities and belong to a Romania becoming less nationalistic as the country prepares for accession into the EU (Gallagher 2005).

After the Revolution between 1990 and 2004, Romania had several governments of different political persuasions. Writers on Romania's political history (Klepper 2002, Gallagher 2005, Siani-Davies 2007) claim this hindered the process of applying for EU accession. The many governments included the left of centre National Salvation Front (NSF), the Party of Social Democracy of Romania (PDSR), the centre-right Party of the Romanian Democratic Convention (CDR) and the Social Democratic Party (PSD). All of these, to a greater or lesser degree, attempted to implement reforms intended to introduce a market economy. At the beginning of this period,

the industrial sector was inefficient and over-staffed, producing relatively obsolete products and surviving largely by means of government subsidies. Enterprises that were profitable (mainly the energy and resource extraction sectors) provided subsidies for the non-profitable sectors, plus private income for 'insiders'. Utilities (gas, water, electricity) remained under state control and suffered from lack of investment and modernisation. The market sector consisted mainly of small under-capitalised businesses, a flourishing grey economy, and a small agricultural sector employing 30% of the labour force, but contributing only 13% of GDP. Banking and financial systems also struggled through a lack of effective reforms (Gallagher 2005, Siani-Davies 2007).

Since 1990 the slow pace of structural reform has made it difficult to achieve fiscal balance, with governments unable to control budget deficits, resulting in high rates of inflation. Much of the impetus for effective reform resulted from pressures exerted by external agencies and global institutions, including the EU, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, with the ultimate prize being entry into the EU (Kumin 2009). Aid programmes from these agencies and Western governments were designed to strengthen the capacity of Romania to integrate successfully and play a meaningful role in organisations like the EU and NATO. Economic progress has been made since 2000. Following a fall in industrial output in the previous decade, strong growth has been achieved in most areas. Privatisation has been slow, but the private sector accounted for 70% of GDP in 2004, after an acceleration of privatisation in the previous year (Kumin 2009). There have been an increasing number of sales of enterprises and financial institutions to foreign owners, who are investing in the modernisation of plant, equipment, systems and methods. More goods are now being produced for export, including machinery, electrical equipment, automobile parts and even components for the A380 airbus. The telecommunications and IT sectors have opened up to competition and are expanding, with internet penetration increasing rapidly (Klepper 2002, Gallagher 2005, Siani-Davies 2007). Reforms in the business and finance sectors are leading to the development of a young, professional, consumer orientated, middle class. Most large towns now have modern shopping arcades or malls, and out-of-town supermarkets. Since 2004 the economy has continued to

grow at a steady rate (about 6.5% per year), mainly because of the increase in the processing and manufacturing of goods in small and medium-sized family-owned businesses The main industries are clothing and shoe manufacturing, metallurgy, extracting and processing of primary goods (timber, marble, rock etc), food processing, oil refining and derivatives, pharmaceuticals, heavy machinery and household electronics. Vehicle manufacturing has now become an important industry (Renault, Ford, ARO and Daewoo models are produced), and the IT related industry is also growing (Gallagher 2005). Some of the SMEs manufacture products which are technologically inferior to similar ones made in the more industrially advanced countries, and this will affect sales unless the problem is addressed. Industry accounts for 35% of the GDP and employs 31% of the labour force. The Service Sector has the greatest impact on the economy with 55% of the GDP and 38% of the labour force, and agriculture 10% of GDP with 31% of the labour force. Unemployment in August 2007 was 3.6%. As mentioned above, the economy is now growing at a steady 6.5% per year, and it is expected that the Romanian GDP will double by 2011 (Romanian National Institute of Statistics 2011).

Gallagher (2005) raises questions about the likely future trends in the distribution of political and economic power, and relations between state and society, not only as a result of twelve years of democracy but also due to the billions of euros of aid pouring into the country. In his book 'Theft of a Nation' Gallagher traces the history of diverting public money for private use and tells the story of how political figures plundered Romanian state-owned assets creating a political elite and a country with a few people owning the wealth of the nation. According to Gallagher in 1996-97 the head of the government's anti-corruption unit Valerian Stan, claimed 70% of elected representatives had their own businesses, devoting more time to them than their official duties. In 2002 corruption was worse than at any other time when the personal wealth of the Prime Minister Nastase was investigated. There were concerns about his connections with unscrupulous and controversial businessmen. The outcome was a national appeal from Nastase on TV to crack down on corruption. Nevertheless in 2003 Brussels and EU member states suggested that Romania's chances of accession by 2007 had increased. It is generally thought that this was due to the patronage of powerful EU members by the Nastase government

rather than a willingness of the Romania people to engage with the EU requirements for entry.

In terms of competitiveness with its neighbours, and border trade, Romania has the advantage of the strategic port of Constanta, the busiest port on the Black Sea, adept at entrepot activities, providing for easier, more effective and efficient exporting and importing (Villiers 2009). Profit margins in Romania are higher than in Poland, Bulgaria and Hungary, and the GDP growth rate has been the fastest in the CEE region in the 2003-2007 period. Precluding unforeseen circumstances, the momentum is such that within this decade it will surpass Hungary in respect of standard of living (per capita GDP), the rate of economic growth and the size of capital influx. Bucharest is the largest financial centre in the region, and the World Bank forecasts the city to double the size of its population in the next ten years (Villiers 2009). Constantia is also a border crossing point and has one of the RBP's largest and busiest training Schools, training border police in both sea border control and general border management competencies.

Whilst Romania has a growing economy, as in most countries, there remain vulnerable groups. Earlier mention was made of the aid programmes from the West designed to strengthen the capacity of the Romanian economy for future integration into the EU, and many of these programmes gave a commitment to protect vulnerable groups, such as ethnic minorities, the unemployed and subsistence level peasants, from any downside effects of economic and social transition. While the main aim of these programmes appears to be having the desired effect, it is a fact that Romania still has 12.5% of its population (more than 2.75 million people) living below the poverty line (Kumin 2009).

3.5 Nationalism and Ethnic Groups

From a border management standpoint it is imperative to have intelligence of people movement in and across Romania, and their nationality. There are a sizable number of non-Romanians minorities living in Romania, where for some groups restrictions apply on movement internally. This has been a longstanding issue for the RBP who are responsible for monitoring and controlling the movement of

people. The monitoring and control of ethnic groups in Romania was instigated at the establishment of Romania as an independent state in 1878. At this time there were sizeable non-Romanian minorities, with Jews comprising more than 3% of the population, while at the same time, there was a large Romanian population (over two million) living in Transylvania (part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire), where they outnumbered the Hungarians (Giurescu 1972, Boia 2001, Klepper 2002, Kumin 2009). There were also substantial numbers of Romanians living in Bucovina and Basarabia, and the independence of Romania gave stimulus to nationalistic movements in these regions, seeking unification with Romania. Although they are no longer a major ethnic group, the Germans have played an important role in the development of the area. As with the Hungarians, there are two distinct German groups, the Saxons and the Swabians, living in Transylvania (Giurescu 1972, Boia 2001, Klepper 2002, Kumin 2009).

The Saxons, who arrived primarily from the Rhineland in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, were invited by the Hungarian rulers and were granted a fair degree of political autonomy and control of their internal affairs. They were given a land base known as Sachsenboden (Saxon Land), with complete administrative authority and protection from political encroachment. Early predominance in trade and commerce established them in a superordinate position, and the urban areas in the region, founded on Saxon trade, emerged with a distinctively German character (Giurescu 1972). An important factor in preserving their ethnic identity was their adoption of the Lutheran religion, which came to dominate community life, controlled education through parochial schools, and maintained a cultural link with Germany. In contrast, the Swabians, from the Wuerttemberg area of Germany, did not arrive until the eighteenth century, and settled in the Banat region (Giurescu 1972). They followed their agricultural tradition and remained Roman Catholic.

As with the Germans, the Jews are no longer a major group. They were first recorded in the region as far back as the second century and thereafter there are numerous records of Jewish settlements around the Black Sea. By the early nineteenth century there were significant Jewish populations across the north of the area now occupied by Romania. Those in Transylvania adopted first the

German culture but a century later changed to the Hungarian culture. In the other areas they retained their own culture. In both areas they became involved in the local business and commerce, and controlled banking services in Moldavia (Giurescu 1972, Boia 2001, Klepper 2002, Kumin 2009).

Originating from northern India, the Roma (also known as Gypsies), first appeared in the northwest regions of Romania in the eleventh century. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the Roma were used in slavery which became institutionalised in the provinces around Transylvania. Slavery was not abolished completely until the nineteenth century. Their nomadic lifestyle and non-conformity with accepted convention, has not enamoured the Roma to the local population, and they have been subject to constant discrimination (Achim 2004). In Romania they have been primarily employed as a mobile workforce in agriculture. They have their own language which is Indo-Iranian in origin, and in their culture men are superior to women. Due to their nomadic ways and lack of formal contact with government and local institutions, it is not apparent how their population figure is arrived at, and many commentators are of the opinion that the Roma population is much higher than that given (Achim 2004). The Gypsies are now the main ethnic group in Romania around which more recently a fair amount of conflict is being generated. Gypsies were not, for the most part, land owners, but they were very heavily involved in trade and commerce. After 1989, they increased their presence in small trading such as small shops and street stalls. Now, Romanians are blaming the trade middlemen, who are disproportionately Gypsies, for the 'absolutely phenomenal inflation--300 or 400%--which plagues the country' (Achim 2004). There has been a great deal of violent conflict between Romanians and Gypsies with the burning of Gypsy villages, and targeted killings. Verdery (1996) writing on poverty in Romania claims that there are inherent negative and racist attitudes towards the Gypsy communities in Romania.

The two world wars and the ensuing boundary changes led to an even greater diversity of ethnic minorities and cultures, making the idea of a single national identity even more difficult to comprehend. These differences are highlighted by the fact that at the parliamentary elections in 1937 there were thirteen major

parties and fifty four secondary organisations contesting the election. Despite this diversity, Greater Romania was built on the doctrine of a 'unitary state', and there were few concessions to regional identities or non-Romanian minorities (by the mid 1930s, 28% of the population was non-Romanian in origin) (Leb 2002). In the territories gained after the war, many of the political, economical and urban elite were of Hungarian, German and Jewish origin, and under the process of 'nationalising the state' pursued by the Romanian political elite, many of these minorities gradually lost their dominant positions (Leb 2002). The constant boundary changes, both extending and diminishing the boundaries, have meant that at various times minority groups have had to embrace the way of life, ideals and aspirations of Romania and of other states around the borders. For the ethnic minorities with their own traditions and religions, these upheavals must have been particularly disturbing.

Table 3.3 The Ethnic Composition of Romanian in 2007

Minority	Population	% of total population
Hungarians	1,431,807	6.6%
Roma	535,140	2.46%
Ukrainians	61,098	0,28%
Germans	59,764	0.27%
Russians	35,791	0.17%
Turks	32,098	0.15%

Source: Gallagher (2005)

Other minorities (with more than 1,000):

Crimean Tatars, Serbs, Slovaks, Bulgarians, Croats, Greeks, Jews, Czechs, Poles, Italians, Chinese, Armenians, Csango.

Much of the ethnic diversity in Romania is derived from the geographical position of this region astride major continental migration routes. This has meant that the modern state of Romania was composed of territories which for centuries were separate political entities, with different histories, where ethnic groups had substantially different social and political status (Verdery 1996). To compound this issue, these minority groups themselves consisted of successive strata of

immigrants/colonists with historical differences. Since the inception of the modern state, the population, status and general fortunes of minorities have been affected by boundary changes, regional conflict, communist domination, structural reforms for economic advancement, and by preparation for accession to the EU. In addition to the many affected forcibly by these factors, they have also provided an inducement for minorities to emigrate voluntarily, as in the case of the Germans and the Jews.

3.6 End of Ceausescu, Accession and EU Funding Mechanisms

The revolutions in the late 1980s and early 1990s in Central Eastern Europe (CEE) created a unique set of conditions for organisations in this region of Europe (Auerbach and Stone, 1991; Lane, 1995 Lee, Gallagher 2005). The revolution in Romania left a legacy of structures, systems and organisational cultures that were maladapted to the new circumstances which they faced as the region underwent geopolitical upheaval. Ceausescu's legacy was one of an obsolete industrial base with working methods and patterns of output unsuited to the country's needs (UK Foreign Office 2003). The country experienced high levels of inflation, a slight increase in GDP per capita, and a constant devaluation in the national currency (lei). However, by the year 2000 the GDP growth rate had increased after a three year period of decline. Since then the strong currency reserves of the National Bank have grown by $950 million and those of the commercial banks by $290 million, demonstrating a more optimistic climate and much needed for EU entry (Gurau 2002).

As the Eastern Block collapsed a new genre of literature emerged with discussions about post-socialist changes (Auerbach and Stone, 1991; Lane 1995, Lee 1996, Wedel 1998, Sach 1999), and focussed on ethical questions relating to Western aid attempts in Central and Eastern Europe (CCE) for market reform. An abundance of Western research also developed examining the effectiveness of Western aid, as the demand for aided projects mushroomed on an unprecedented scale. So-called 'experts' in the West constructed sophisticated models of change in an attempt to solve and shift the hierarchical, command economy to one based on market competition principles and practice. The introduction of models of change and

change processes were developed through the design of management knowledge transfer programmes, and as a result Western education programmes were rapidly launched and established as part of the transformation of existing organisations. Management development programmes designed by the West for State Owned Enterprises featured heavily on the EU reform agenda. This topic has also been a focus of research since McNulty and Katkov (1992:78) claimed in their position paper on Eastern Europe management that 'Eastern European Managers are among the most highly educated in the world'. They also claimed that 'the amount of management education per manager is estimated to be greater in Eastern Europe than in the US or any other Western country'. This discovery by McNulty and Katkov, of an excellent education infrastructure raised questions about management knowledge transfer programmes supported by PHARE, and prompted an investigation of the issues for the pre-accession countries (Geppert 2002; Bedward, Jankowicz, and Rexworthy 2003; Michailova and Hollingshead 2009). Without a doubt the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe and Romania's subsequent joining the EU has given rise to a surge of research and literature on the EU experience of post Eastern European communist countries.

In 1999 Romania were invited to apply for EU accession (ROMANIA - Regular Report – 13/10/99). Romania had already been referenced in 'Agenda 2000' as an aspirant country. Agenda 2000 was a document published by the European Commission in 1997 setting out future plans for EU enlargement. Along with Bulgaria, Latvia, and Lithuania, Romania was considered to pass the test of democracy and human rights. It was felt however that they had much to do in terms of economic and legal reform so it would be at least 2007 before accession would be granted. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank were relieved when the government at that time (Party of Romanian Social Democracy) agreed to allow external agencies to assist with the reform process of 'modernisation' for accession. The IMF, World Bank and EU saw the aid programmes as helping strengthen Romania's ability to have full involvement in transnational organisations like the EU and NATO (Gallager 2005). Numerous aid programmes have since sought to help with institution building, economic and social transition, and above all promote a stable democracy.

Between 2000-2006 the EU supplied millions of Euros in pre-accessional aid, to help restructure the Romanian economy and infrastructure (Council Regulation EC No. 1268/1999). The main mechanism for accessing pre-accession funds was through PHARE funds (Poland and Hungary: Assistance for restructuring their Economies). PHARE was thus designed to play a crucial role in preparing Romania for enlargement, but would pose particular problems for EU policy given both GDP per capita of candidate countries (CC) as well as their centralised administrative structures. Post-communist decentralisation would be a long drawn out process and many CCS's still lacked comprehensive regional development strategies (EU Commission 1999). PHARE'S role therefore was predominately seen as rectifying this situation, but its history has been problematic and its operation difficult. It dates back to 1989, and its history can be traced by three distinct marked phases (Bailey and De Propris 2004). Initially PHARE was designed to help Poland and Hungary in their transition to a market economy, but this was quickly extended to other transition countries focussing on 'technical assistance'. Until 1998 PHARE was demand driven and governments could request help for any area of need. This led to a proliferation of small scale projects creating 'enormous complications and time consuming activities by project managers' (Bothorel 1999:72). Every project had a project manager responsible for implementing and monitoring the project, alongside a local civil servant and EU expert, and the system was a bureaucratic nightmare (Bothorol 1999). This marked the first phase of PHARE in 1998. After this the Commission undertook a detailed review, resulting in three interlinking reforms (Bailey 2004);

1. To integrate PHARE into the CC's own government's structure,
2. To rationalise and simplify procedures
3. To improve Commission procedural controls and supervision through the use of commission delegations (Bailey 2004).

Agenda 2000 was the last phase in PHARE's history and offers additional support mechanisms to help candidate countries familiarise themselves with the main principals of EU structural policies. One of the support mechanisms is known as 'twinning'. According to the EU Commission in their reference manual on twinning

(2005), 'Twinning was an initiative of the European Commission launched in the context of preparation for enlargement of the European Union. It was conceived as an instrument for targeted administrative co-operation to assist Candidate Countries to strengthen their administrative and judicial capacity to implement Community legislation as future Member States (MS) of the European Union' (Privacy statement 1). More than a 1000 twinning projects have been implemented since its inception and has been the main source of funding for reformation of State institutions in Romania and particularly for the Romanian Border Police.

The following table (3.4) is taken from the 'Twinning' manual and illustrates the EU funding mechanisms and its beneficiaries, for the different regions of Europe.

Table 3.4 EU funding mechanisms and its beneficiaries

PROGRAMME	BENEFICIARY COUNTRIES	REGULATION	AIM
PHARE [1]	BULGARIA , ROMANIA TURKEY [2] and CROATIA	Council Regulation (EEC) N° 3906/89 of 18 December 1989 and subsequent amendments. For Turkey special Financing Instrument.Phare is applicable to Croatia as from 01/01/2005	Institution Building assistance to countries which strive to become MS of the European Union in enforcing the EU acquis. Phare is foreseen to be replaced by the unified pre-accession instrument in 2007.
TRANSITION FACILITY	CYPRUS, MALTA, CZECH REPUBLIC, ESTONIA, HUNGARY, LATVIA, LITHUANIA, POLAND, SLOVENIA, SLOVAKIA	Transition Facility – Article 31 of the Act of Accession..	Continued support for the reinforcement of administrative and judicial capacity in the new MS.
CARDS	ALBANIA, BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA, FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA, SERBIA AND MONTENEGRO (REPUBLIC OF SERBIA, KOSOVO [3], REPUBLIC OF MONTENEGRO)	Council Regulation (EEC) 2666/2000 of 5 December 2000	Main instrument to support the Stabilisation and Association Process. Focus on Institutional/Legal Reform, Sustainable Economic Development, Social Development, Democratic Stabilisation, Refugee Return and Regional Co-operation. € 4.65 billion for period 2000-2006
TACIS	ARMENIA, AZERBAIJAN, BELARUS, GEORGIA, KAZAKHSTAN, KYRGYSTAN, MOLDOVA, MONGOLIA, RUSSIAN FEDERATION, TADJIKISTAN, TURKMENISTAN, UKRAINE, UZBEKISTAN	Council Regulation (EC, EURATOM) 2000 - 20006 No 99/2000 of 29 December 1999	New cooperation instrument with Tacis countries aimed at encouraging institution building by means of partnership co-operation projects between public administrations. These projects should accelerate the process of administrative reform and facilitate the design and implementation of public policies of these countries.
MEDA	TUNISIA, JORDAN, LEBANON, MOROCCO (Countries having signed a Support programme for the implementation of the Association Agreements) Other MEDA countries having signed AAs are eligible for a future AAA programme: ALGERIA, EGYPT, ISRAEL, THE PALESTINIAN AUTHORITY, SYRIA.	Council Regulation (EEC) N° 2698/2000 of 27 November 2000, amending Council Regulation N°1488/96 of 23 July 1996.	New instrument for Institution Building assistance to MEDA countries, within the framework of the Support programmes for the implementation of the Association Agreements (AAAs), answering to the global objectives of the Euro-Mediterranean partnership. MEDA II Regulation: €5.35 billion for 2000-2006. Areas of co-operation are (annex II Regulation): Support to economic transition and the establishment of a Euro-Med. free trade area; Support for sustainable economic and social development; Regional, sub-regional and cross-border cooperation; Good governance.

1) Some Phare projects are obviously still under implementation in the 10 new MS
2) With some specific arrangements for Turkey
3) Under international administration in line with UNSCR 1244 of 10 June 1999

Source: EU Enlargement –Twinning Manuel (European Commission 2006)

At the NATO summit in Prague, November 2002, the Heads of NATO member states adopted a decision to invite Romania to start NATO accession talks. Bulgaria, Slovenia, Slovakia, Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia were also invited to join, with Romania becoming an official member in 2004. Prior to this at the XIVth NATO Workshop on Political-Military Decision Making in the Czech Republic, Emil Constantinescu, President of Romania in 1997 said:

> *'Romanian society does not regard accession to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization as a form of protection against a threat, but rather as a way to regain an identity that was unjustly denied to it for five decades. For us, NATO is not a shelter but a community based on shared values now recovered'.*

The statement made by the former Romanian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Andrei Plesu in 1999 illustrates the pace (and sometimes confusion) of cultural change required of the Romanian people to prepare and adapt to NATO membership (and also EU membership) within a five year period. For Romania the pace of change during this period was phenomenal. The former Romanian Minister of Foreign Affairs in a speech presented to the Nobel Institute (January 12, 1998) said;

> *'...for 50 years the Romanian people were taught that NATO members were'the bad guys'....that (communist) propaganda did not work. Not only the great majority could not be persuaded that NATO was something bad, on the contrary, almost everybody ended up worshiping NATO as a utopia of salvation....It is somehow uncomfortable that this time we are the ones who are considered if not 'bad guys,' at least 'the guys who are not good enough.'*

Given the speed of change Romania positively embraced joining NATO for the reasons given by the President, and by 2004 The European Enlargement Report stated that Romania had fulfilled the political criteria for EU membership, and it had also consolidated and deepened the stability of its institutions. However, the report suggested, the effectiveness of governmental and judiciary reforms was dependent

on Romania's ability to effectively implement the changes. Taking a critical perspective on events it would have been difficult for the EU not to accept Romania as a member state. A refusal to delay or defer Romania's accession would have caused a tension between NATO and the EU who were working together on a strategy for a united Europe. Jeffery Sachs, Director of the Center for International Development, Harvard University in 1999 said that it had been unwise for the EU and NATO to keep the Balkan states out of contention for early members, arguing they were not ready, as this became a self-fulfilling prophecy. The incentive for Romania to reform and improve its economic and political situation was minimal with no prospect of EU or NATO membership at that time. According to Falls (2000) as soon as Romania had become a member of NATO the Romanian Embassy in Washington released a summary cost estimate of $3.817 billion for the thirteen year period 1997-2009, or just under $295 million per year. Under this scheme, specific expenditures were earmarked as follows:

- upgrading military structure and command systems: $850 million;
- building operational interoperability and command procedures: $167 million;
- modernization of defence equipment and acquisition of new equipments: $1600 million;
- upgrading the military infrastructure so that to enable full interoperability: $1200.122 million.

The above clearly had an impact on the RBP who were classed as an integral part of the Romanian security services. They would benefit greatly by the funds to improve, upgrade, modernise and build their organisation structures, procedures and equipment. However, it would be sometime before NATO funding would be filtered down, and it was EU PHARE funding which became available first for organisation development. (RBP strategic plan 2005:12). Figure 3.4 illustrates the significance of Romania's geographical position to NATO.

Romania's future was secured at the 2004 European Summit. The Summit voted in support of Romania's accession in 2007. The European Council also asserted that

Romania would meet all of the requirements of membership by the planned date of accession, provided it continued its efforts to that end and completed all necessary reforms and commitments undertaken, in particular important commitments regarding Justice and the legal system. The final monitoring report on Romania by the European Commission recommended accession on January 1st, 2007, and indeed Romania became a member of the EU on that date.

Figure 3.2 Map illustration of NATO states in central Europe

Source: Central Intelligence Alliance (2004)

On the journey to accession Justice and Home Affairs was one of the most difficult chapters in the process of negotiations for EU membership. These negotiations dealt with very sensitive issues such as the reform of the judiciary, the necessity to adopt strong and efficient anti-corruption measures and the obligation to secure the borders in order to align to the Schengen Acquis (the treaty allowing people to move freely in all member states of the EU).

3.7 The Romanian Border Police Organisation

The history of the border police in Romania is chequered. There is very little existing early literature which is subsumed into general political history, where writers give border security no more than a mention. More has been written over the last twenty years since the revolution of 1989, because of the growing importance of the borders and border security. Much of the historical information about the RBP has been taken from archival records, the RBP Museum in Bucharest, the RBP magazine 'Frontiera', and the Training School at Orsova. For centuries there have been border guards in some guise protecting the land from would be invaders, but this has appeared in various formats depending on the rulers of the day, how much money they wanted to invest in this activity, and, more importantly, the amount of power they wished to bestow on the guards undertaking this function. The earliest official record of border guard activity was made in 1829, when a border patrol was set up after the Treaty of Adrianopole (RBP archives, Generale Inspectorate of the RBP, Bucharest), and its purpose and function according to the Constitutional Statutes was 'the guarding of the borders, of quarantine and customs points, the health line, and the care for the payment of rents'. There were 4,673 guards engaged in border activities at this time some on foot, others on horseback and some patrolling the Danube in boats. The main purpose of setting up a quarantines system was to guard Walachia against the scourge of terrible diseases such as the plague: 'thus, one will set on the left side of the Danube an unchanged health line' (Politia de Frontiera Romana 2005).

Gradually the border system improved, responsibility (competencies) was established, and procedures for guarding were put in place. It was at this time that a uniform was designed to distinguish the border police from the civil guard. In 1834 the guarding of the border was done at more significant points by the permanent army, and at less important points (secondary points) by 'cordonasi' (on the Danube), and 'potecasi' (in the mountains) who were recruited from the people of the villages near the border. Each village had a permanent corporal, four armed men and a man to row (Politia de Frontiera Romana 2005), with food provided by the villagers, each was paid twenty farthings per day. This situation lasted till 1850

when through 'The Law for the organising of the border patrol' (RBP archives), the guarding of the border was taken from the army and entrusted to the villages. The law decreed that 120 families would guard four border pickets. Each border point on the Danube had twenty two men, those on the border with Austria fourteen and those towards Moldavia seven men, rotated in two shifts, for the period of one week.

Over the intervening period, the border police have progressed significantly with many changes The name changed in 1904 when they became 'The Border Officers Battalion' (RBP museum Bucharest), and it was around this time that the border guard service became officially recognised with the introduction of the dark green uniform. In 1920 the first magazine or journal of the border officers was published, and while in itself this may appear insignificant, in the development and history of the guards, since this first edition of 'Revista Granicerilor' the journal has played a central part in publicising the work of the organisation. The journal has changed named several times and is currently known as 'Frontiera' (the Border).

In the period 1919 - 1940, the Border Officers Body was reorganised several times into brigades, regiments and companies mainly due to the wars. The Border police Museum in Bucharest holds many examples of the elaborate uniforms from this time, but more interesting is a record of the statutes passed affecting border movement in Romania. At the time of the two World Wars the statutes focused on forbidding expelled foreigners re-entry. These 'foreigners' were registered in an alphabetical registry of 'expelled', extradited or banished persons' from the country. Another category of person not permitted access even with valid documents, were those afflicted by 'madness' unless they were accompanied by another person.

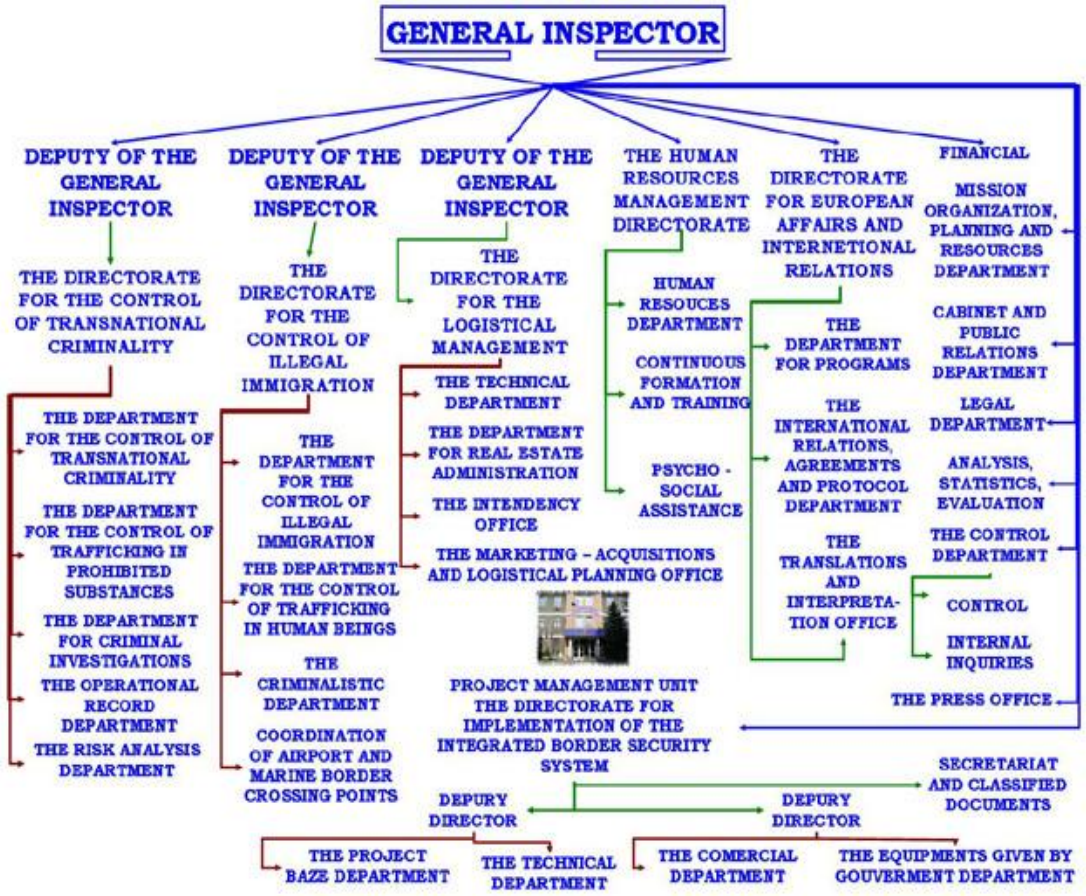
During the Second World War, the border patrol forces carried out missions characteristic of the war period. Law no. 59 passed in 1941 (RBP museum Orsova), stipulated the militarising of the police points on the borders, harbours and railway stations, which were placed under the control of the Army General. In 1947 the High Command of Border Patrol Troops was taken from the command of the

Ministry of National Defence and placed under that of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, but having the same function; the guarding and defence of the borders. Then in 1948, a Department for passports was created, with the Ministry of Internal Affairs, through a statute giving the border police responsibility for this function. When Romania became part of the Communist East after the war the main function of the border guard was the guarding and surveillance of the borders. This was done on the border line and towards the inside of the country, for a depth of twenty five km from this line (RBP archives, GIBP Bucharest). At this time the border guards were politically publicised as 'troops defending the homeland', giving them popular appeal and support from the nation.

Probably the most significant event in RBP history came about in 1999 when the Ministry for Internal Affairs restructured border security, and the Border Guards merged with the Military Police to form the Romanian Border Police (Frontiera 2004). When two organisations merge the process of change is fraught with many problems and challenges, and a transformational change of this magnitude results in entirely new behaviour sets on the organisational members (Burke 92), and also requires careful reinventing of the major components at the core of the business, these being; the mission and strategy, leadership, response to the external environment, and organisational culture (Burke 92). Consequently, since 2001 the RBP have restructured the organisational hierarchy four times moving to their desired state of 'modernisation', in preparation for EU accession. The strategic plan 2004-07 clearly defines the objectives to be achieved from the restructuring programme, with an emphasis on improving work practices, and developing effective surveillance and physical checks at the borders. However, in April 2005 the restructuring exercise in the name of 'modernisation' reduced the workforce by 30%, as the administrative function became more efficient and effective with the installation of new technology, leaving the number of employees in the organisation as approximately 20,000. Since October 2005, the General Inspectorate of the Border Police (GIBP) has been reorganised by reducing the number of job titles from 410 to 280. The organisation structure as it stood in 2006 is shown in Figure 3.3.

Romania has a strategic geographical position in Europe of particular importance to the EU. First, it is situated at the crossroads of two major routes of world migration. Second, it has a long Eastern border with the Republic of Moldova and Ukraine, which will become an external EU border after Romania's accession to the EU. The main trends for cross-border crime are illegal migration, drug trafficking, weapons smuggling and trafficking. One of Romania's major goals for accession was achieving security of the national border, as well as strengthening border surveillance and control.

Figure 3.3 Organisational Chart of the Romanian Border Police



Source: Fronteria 2007

The Romanian Border Police are responsible for 'The National Strategy for Integrated Border Management 2004-2007'. This was created and implemented to enable cooperation between all agencies involved in border crossing, for example, neighbouring countries.

The RBP have an organisational structure (Figure 3.3), in line with European standards. Police grades, and the competencies at each grade, have been properly defined, and a new career structure has been adopted. The RBP had improved its overall training system, and developed the specialist capabilities of a number of the personnel who work within it. The Border Security Strategy for 2004 - 2007 also stipulates some priorities regarding the Implementation of a performing human resources management system as: Training of the didactic personnel according to the community standards, by programs organised in collaboration with EU experts; specialised management training, by developing training programs according to the advanced European practices, meant to ensure the improvement of leadership performances at all levels and RBP structures.

The RBP has also elaborated programmatic documents and methodology guides, in order to bring it in line with the European principles and practices in the field (Border Policeman Manual – based on the Schengen Manual, Carrier Guide – which stipulates the stages and conditions necessary for the professional development of staff)

A basic curriculum for Border Police training has been designed and introduced, and is being applied by 'professors' (trainers) in the RBP regional training centres. Additionally, a number of new training disciplines have been introduced, and the status, role and competencies of the professors have been elaborated. However, RBP 'foundation' training such as introductory and basic training for newly-recruited personnel, or personnel beginning work in new RBP disciplines needs to be further upgraded, to ensure that it effectively covers all EU border management requirements, as well as giving proper weight to human rights and equal opportunities considerations. For this to happen, there is still a need for the RBP trainers at regional training centres, and their managers, to develop a fuller range of skills in curriculum design and development, and also the use of a wider range of training methodologies.

In spite of the significant progresses made during the four years leading up to accession there are continued difficulties faced by the RBP, and particular attention has to be paid to:

- Increased efforts to improve equipment and infrastructure at the future external borders;
- Accelerated recruitment of 4.483 agents and border police officers filling vacancies up to 100% especially at the border with Ukraine, the Republic of Moldova, and the Romania Seacoast border, and to strengthen cooperation with third countries.

Continuous monitoring of progress made by aspirant countries is done by the EU Peer Review Committee. The Peer Review Committee aims to allow frank and open dialogue between EU and Romanian representatives and to enable a detailed assessment on the spot. Romania's final progress report (2000) was interesting and commented on four areas giving cause for concern, and requiring ongoing improvement:

- Border management, visa and implementation of the Schengen Action Plan
- Independence of the judiciary, training and ethics
- Functioning of the police and fight against various forms of organised crime
- Fight against corruption, fraud and money laundering.

EU funding efforts have not been without its criticisms. Romania has looked towards accession as a panacea for all their problems but criticism have been raised about, corruption, the bureaucracy of the systems for accessing funding, and more importantly the effectiveness of the knowledge transfer programmes designed.

The influx of funding for reform in Romania raised significant questions about its ability to manage its financial affairs. Many Western writers expressed concerns in the 1990s about the way in which aid and funding was used, some were highly

critical of its misuse and the corruptive activities associated with it. Romania's reputation for corruptive practice is particularly notorious.

Wedel (2004) wrote extensively on the ways in which Western assistance to ex-communist countries has often retarded rather than stimulated economic projects. Wedel was specifically writing about the donation of aid from the United States (and later IMF) principally to Russia and the Ukraine, following the collapse and break up of USSR, but many of the arguments apply to EU Phare funded projects. In '*Collision and Collusion: The Strange Case of Western Aid to Eastern Europe*' (1999), Wedel raises awareness of the corruption and abuse of funds by governments and generally was extremely critical of the methods used by the West, and the aid agencies involved in helping Eastern Europe in the 'modernisation process', and particularly how in some cases aid appears to become an end in itself and has been used for self-enrichment. In the paper on the 'US Assistance for Market Reform' (2004) Wedel draws on one seminal example to illustrate her concerns about corruption in the mid-1990s in Russia and Ukraine. It describes how the US decided to use the Harvard Institute for International Development (HIID) to instigate market reform. Unfortunately, for those countries, the 'reformers' (a loose description for opportunists who could pull strings under both the previous and current regimes) chose to work within Russia were dominated by a group known as the St Petersburg clan (a kind of Russian Mafia), with a similar clique in Ukraine. In Russia the HIID had a reform portfolio encompassing privatisation, legal reform, capital markets, and the development of a securities and exchange commission. For this and other minor activities, the HIID received more than $350 million over a period of five years. The leader of the St Petersburg Clan had previously been head of Boris Yeltzin's successful presidential campaign, and had a very powerful ally in the President. Most of the reforms instigated by the HIID/St Petersburg clan grouping were both unsuccessful and unpopular with the local populace. However, because they were so unpopular, their implementation was always authorised by signed presidential decree, bye-passing the Russian parliament, where they would have been rejected. Eventually in 1997 the US Aids Inspector General received documents incriminating the HIID, and cancelled funds earmarked for that

organisation, citing evidence that its two principal consultants had 'abused the trust of the US Government by using personal relationships for private gain'.

PHARE was designed as an instrument for pre-accession with a third of this funding now specifically targeted at institution building, and the design of Western management programmes to achieve this, but here lies yet another contentious issue, as many researchers have presented the contention that Western management models transferability is erroneous (Mitry and Bradley 2005).Western theories of organisational change and development have been widely used in research on Eastern Europe and from the extensive research conducted most Western knowledge transfer programmes on organisation development (OD) have upheld the theory of Ackerman (1984) as being the panacea for change and the idyllic state to which organisations should aspire to. Ackerman (1984) describes three types of organisational change, each varying in scope and depth:

1. developmental change,
2. transitional change, and
3. transformational change.

Alas and Sharifi (2002) argued that Ackerman's typology described the changes that had taken place in Estonian companies, thus supporting the view that Western models of change are transferable. This view however, is not shared by Clark and Geppard (2002). They claim that ethnographic research studies in this field revealed that knowledge transfer is much more complex, with ambiguity inherent in the conception of post-socialism as societal transformation, supporting the view of Mitry and Bradley (2005). Similarly research conducted by Geroy and Carroll (1994) revealed that Western OD consultants do not understand how models of OD will transfer for use in Eastern European countries. Not only do consultants not understand how models transfer but criticisms have been raised about the methods used by consultants in transferring expertise. Wedel (1998) writing on the US aid programmes to Eastern Europe claimed that consultants were initially welcomed by the host countries, the method of working they employed soon changed this welcoming attitude. This involved paying short visits to a region (sometimes as little as two weeks), where they would adopt a luxury lifestyle in the best hotels, develop tenuous links with their hosts and glean little knowledge of the projects and people

they were supposed to be assisting. Wedel (1999) refers to the consultants working in Poland, and tells the story of how they were given the derogatory name of the 'Marriot Brigade', staying in the Warsaw Marriot on their 'fly in fly out ' visits, and alienating the people they were there to help. In most cases the consultants considered they were working for the US Donor Agencies (who paid their fees), and not on behalf of the intended recipient enterprises and ministries. After their 'short-stay' visits, the consultants would return to the US write and present their reports to the donor agency, and in many cases the intended beneficiary would not be given a copy of the report. According to Wedel as early as 1993 the then Czech prime minister Vaclav Klaus stated:

> *'What we really need- instead of aid is- exchange……..We do not want one way transfers because they tend to be misused, misdirected, or misplaced. They are not usually taken seriously by either side'. (Wedel 1999:97)*

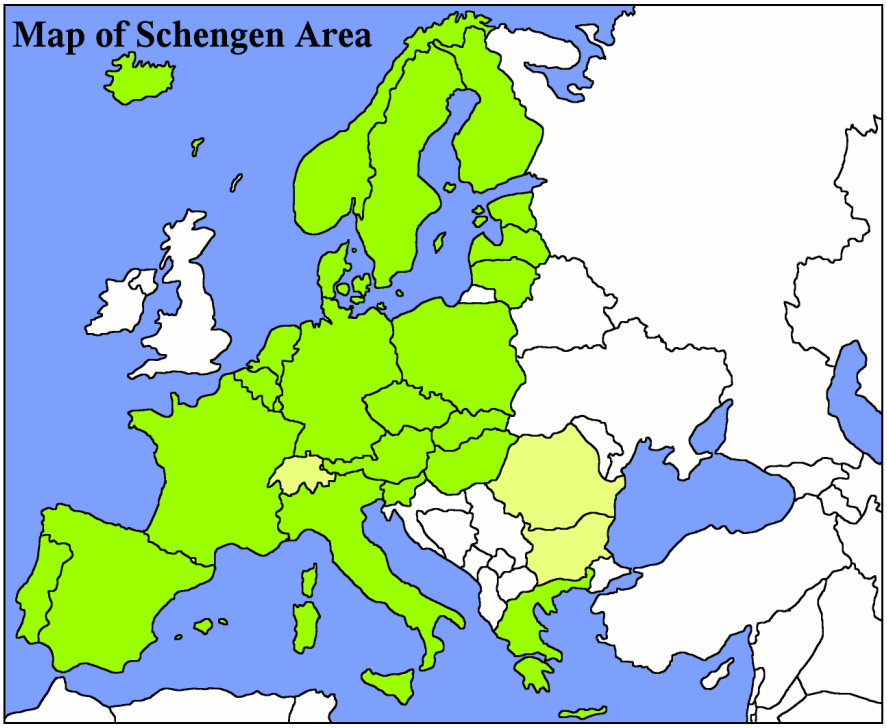
3.8 SCHENGEN

During the 1980s, a debate was instigated by the EU Council about the meaning of the concept 'free movement of peoples' (Beyani 2000). Some Member States felt that this should apply to EU citizens only, which would involve keeping internal border checks in order to distinguish between citizens of the EU and non-EU nationals. Others argued in favour of free movement for everyone, which would mean an end to internal border checks altogether (Schengen Acquis 2004). Since the Member States found it impossible to reach an agreement, France, Germany, Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands decided in 1985 to create a territory without internal borders. This became known as the 'Schengen area', the name being taken from the town in Luxembourg where the first agreements were signed. This intergovernmental cooperation expanded to include thirteen Member States in 1997, following the signing of the Treaty of Amsterdam, which incorporated into EU law on 1 May 1999 the decisions taken since 1985 by the Schengen group members and the associated working structures. Romania is optimistic of inclusion for 2012, as illustrated in Figure 3.6 (Schengen Acquis 2004).

The main measures include (taken from the Schengen Acquis 2004):

- the abolition of checks at common borders, replacing them with external border checks;
- a common definition of the conditions for crossing external borders and uniform rules and procedures for checks there;
- separation in air terminals and ports of people travelling within the Schengen area from those arriving from countries outside the area;

Figure 3.4 Map of Schengen Area as of 2010



Source: European Commission – Schengen Acquis 2012

- harmonisation of the conditions of entry and visas for short stays;
- coordination between administrations on surveillance of borders (liaison officers and harmonisation of instructions and staff training);
- the definition of the role of carriers in measures to combat illegal immigration;
- requirement for all non-EU nationals moving from one country to another to lodge a declaration;

- the drawing up of rules governing responsibility for examining applications from asylum seekers (Dublin Convention, replaced in 2003 by the Dublin II Regulation);
- the introduction of cross-border rights of surveillance and hot pursuit for police forces in the Schengen States;
- the strengthening of judicial cooperation through a faster extradition system and faster distribution of information about the enforcement of criminal judgments;
- the creation of the Schengen Information System (SIS). (Schengen Acquis 2004)

A 'Schengen Area' has huge implications for border policing that will require a different approach, and a different set of skills. Over the next five years the RBP will be 'working on an effective organisational framework to ensure that the learning and development strategy meets the needs for European Union and the Schengen Acquis' (RBP Strategic Plan 2004-2007). Specifically, training has already started to meet the objectives of the Strategic plan. Training in undercover work has formed a large part of the Strategic plan for (2005). Collecting, processing and using data gathered from local sources (those local to the borders) will be vital to monitor border activity. For example, local people may be suspicious of a vehicle or group of people in the area, and want to feel comfortable about how they report this, so cooperation and good relations with the local community is essential. In addition to the policing expertise, and the Schengen requirements, a new set of competences will be needed such as communication skills, and effective interpersonal skills, bringing the border police into the community. The United Nations pointed out in 2002 the crucial role Border Police Forces have in dealing with vulnerable people;

> *'Lack of protection against smugglers in the irregular crossing of the border; the problem of trafficking in persons; excessive use of force against migrants; crossing of the border through dangerous areas; vulnerability of children on the border; racist, xenophobic and discriminatory attitudes; and the conditions in which undocumented*

migrants are detained, especially when they are in the custody of private security agencies' (United Nations Report 2000:2).

Furthermore due to recent political instability, ethnic conflict, neoliberal economic policies, and war in neighbouring countries the RBP are set to face major challenges. As a consequence the migration of people is inevitable. How the RBP are seen in handling migrants is critical to their reputation on the world stage. A recent criticism from Amnesty International is that Border Agencies are ignorant of the Human Rights of migrants as recognised by EU law and the UN. The challenge for the RBP is to ensure Human Rights of individuals are upheld at the borders. A lack of legal representation is a common problem as is language, and reports of migrants suffering indignities have given the RBP bad press (Amnesty International 2009). This has exposed a training need centred on the affective and emotional side of dealing with people.

FRONTEX (French for; *Frontières extérieures* for 'external borders', legally: European Agency for the Management of Operational Cooperation at the External Borders of the Member States of the European Union) have been called on to take responsibility for funding training in this area by Amnesty International who state;

'A revised EU human rights policy needs to take into consideration the role and potential of EU agencies, as a number of them can have a significant impact on human rights. The EU must ensure that the activities of an agency such as FRONTEX, which is responsible for managing operational cooperation between member states at the EU's external borders - but without any specific human rights mandate - respects and does not negatively impact on the human rights of migrants and asylum-seekers'. (Amnesty International 2009:51)

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter has detailed the historic development of Romania, and events leading up to Romania's accession to the European Union. It has traced the history of

Romania's relationship with EU funding mechanisms, and highlights a contentious issue, that aid has sometimes hindered rather than helped political and social reform in Romania. Specifically it has looked at the complexities of EU funding in Romania. Additionally, the Chapter draws attention to the less publicised NATO invitation for Romanian membership, and their motives. The chapter is ultimately a discourse on the complexities impacting on a modern RBP. In describing the RBP organisation, an acknowledgement of the many layers and parties involved in the process of research is purported, and that the result of the research may be qualitatively different from that envisaged originally. In the process of cross-cultural knowledge transfer there are lessons to be learnt from this research. It can be argued that the chapter is fundamentally about the relationship and interaction between people from different cultures and the complexities of this.

> *'Indeed in any circumstance transplanting development assistance (including ideas, know how and grants) from one context to another is an inherently troublesome process. The personal and institutional means by which the donors connect with recipients, the circumstances in which both are operating, and the goals of each side critically shape the assistance recipients get, how they respond to it, and the impact of the aid. Yet those factors are typically overlooked: little attention is generally paid to how aid is implemented and how it actually works'. (Wedel, 2000:396)*

It is also evident that with the transition to NATO membership, EU accession, and Schengen inclusion that the RBP have a great deal of training and development to instigate. A major factor evident from the literature presented in this chapter is that an effective funding programme on an EU scale has been complex and difficult. The conclusion is that effective knowledge transfer can be achieved with a complex multi-layered approach that does not ignore the 'soft' factors in the process. An emphasis solely on transferring aid packages of knowledge – 'Know How' will never succeed (Michailova and Hollingshead 2009).

CHAPTER FOUR

Cultural Considerations

4.1 Introduction

The importance of culture in the study of knowledge building and knowledge creation is widely recognized (Gold, Malhotra, and Segars, 2001; Kayworth and Leidner, 2003). In discussions of knowledge building in organisations, and the development of KBC's culture is prominently present (Grant, 1996). It's particularly seen as a potential barrier for the smooth transition of developing processes for knowledge sharing and development (McDermott and O'Dell, 2001). Writers on the subject argue that a culture can be more or less ideal for valuing knowledge and managing it (Banks, 1999; Smith, 2003). Consequently many theories have evolved giving labels to those cultures that can work in a creative environment to assist knowledge building rather than inhibit developments. Over the last decade terms such as the 'knowledge culture', the 'sharing culture' (Comeau-Kirchner, 2000; Damodaran and Olphert, 2000, Draghici and Draghici 2008), the knowledge-centred culture' (Janz and Prasarnphanich, 2003), or the 'knowledge-friendly culture' (Davenport *et al.*, 1998) have been coined. The commonality of the concepts lie in the belief that culture is based on openness and trust, a culture in which learning is appreciated and in which experience, expertise and knowledge are considered more important than hierarchy.

There has been an increased attention on research about the relationship between culture and knowledge building, and the central question remains: How can elements of culture and knowledge building be identified and linked in a framework that is suitable for diagnosing the role of organisation culture in knowledge creation and developing a KBC? The aim of this chapter is to explore the cultural context of an emergent Eastern European economy and to examine, in particular, how notions of national culture in Romania might relate to organisational culture within the RBP. An inductive method has been adopted for this analysis by integrating elements and relationships identified in the literature, looking at the advantages and

disadvantages of existing models of analysis, with the main consideration to develop various ideas around the concept of a knowledge culture. This will help

inform the development of a suitable process model for this research. Consideration has to be given to the complexities of cultural differences, and the problems presented when conducting research into knowledge creation. The use of cultural frameworks, whilst appealing, suffers from constraints and limitations. As introduced in Chapter one Geppert and Clark's (2003) framework for organisation knowledge building offers a useful starting point for nuanced understandings and for developing new concepts of knowledge transfer/creation. The first five factors in their framework places an importance on the national, economic, and institutional culture. These have a considerable impact on the process of knowledge creation and gives justification to the importance of this chapter. As a precursor to the main body of this chapter, and to contextualise the RBP in Europe, the concept of a 'New Europe' is worthy of mention as an explanation of some of the national changes in Romanian culture. The phrase 'New Europe' re-entered political discourse in the 1990s. The term exemplifies the new ways of thinking about the world in a post-Cold War era. Several of the RBP managers started their careers in the 1980s amidst massive cultural shifts in Europe as communism collapsed. The term 'New Europe' reflects the perception of theorising difference and separation of the East and Western parts of the continent, and how this might impact on national cultures.

The literature on organisational behaviour and knowledge transfer identifies a long standing concern with the interaction of national culture and organisational culture. However, the definition of what a national culture is, and its analysis, by commentators in this tradition is often general and unsophisticated. The literature can be criticised for its oversimplification of the issue of culture. By contrast the study of culture in other fields, from literature to history to anthropology, tends to take place at a much higher level and the idea of culture itself treated as problematic. The anthropologist Clifford Geertz, for example, argued that culture is about understanding meaning,

> *'culture is not cults or customs, but the structure of meaning through which men give shape to their experience, and politics is not coups and constitutions, but one of the principal arenas in which such structures publicly unfold'. (Geertz 1973:311-12)*

In keeping with an action inquiry methodology and the belief that knowledge is socially constructed he later developed his thinking and said of culture:

> *'believing, with Max Weber, that man is an animal suspended in webs of significance he himself has spun, I take culture to be those webs, and the analysis of it to be therefore not an experimental science in search of law but an interpretive one in search of meaning...' (Geertz, 1973:3).*

In order to consider this issue more carefully this chapter first outlines some of the ways in which the literature on organisations has used and misused the idea of national culture. It then looks at some of the complexities of conducting research on culture, before defining Romanian culture and turning to the issue of culture in the Romanian border police. The latter section of this chapter includes looking at the results of an analysis to see how the group of border police managers reacted to discussions on RBP culture. An analysis of this is presented based on Hofstede's analysis of differentiating national cultural dimensions (1999).

4.2 The Problem of Culture in the Discussion of National Organisations

The interrelationship between national culture and political culture can be acknowledged, and is one of the central research themes in contemporary political science (Plasser and Pribersky 1996), but political scientists remain divided on its meaning and impact. Almond and Powell (1966) were the first to consider 'political culture' as a configuration of patterns of public opinion in regard to politics. On aggregating individual psychological data Mungiu-Pippidi (2003) claims that this creates 'national' culture 'on the basis of individual representations of politics which

are shared by a majority of the population'. Almond and Powell research on political culture can be understood thus:

> *'political culture is the pattern of individual attitudes and orientations toward politics among the members of a political system. It is the subjective realm that underlies and gives meaning to political actions' (1966:50)*

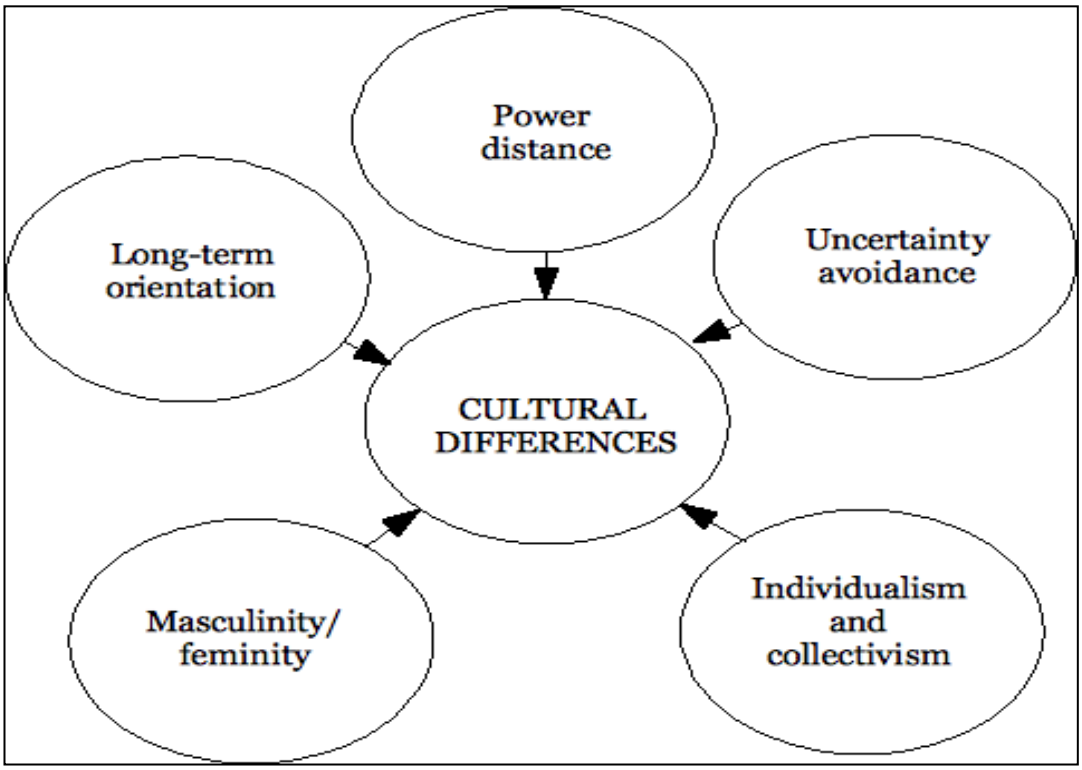
More recently the concept of 'civic culture' (Plasser and Pribersky 1996) has also come into play, with a renaissance of political culture research, and new evidence emerging that culture matters. Needless to say civic culture, national culture and political culture have been a recurring source of debate, and a recurring source of new research initiatives. This is especially important as it has been suggested that early comparative research in Eastern Europe suffers from problems of reliability (Plasser and Pribersky 1996).

To proffer definitions of culture which misrepresent it as static; that is a thing of 'being' rather than a process of 'becoming' would be inappropriate. To define anything leaves no scope for development or change (Lee 2001). Everyone has their own perception and understanding of culture. Our understanding is based on experience of the world. Thus culture is created and expressed through identity. This view follows some of the great 19th century thinkers, 'that history is an expression of national character or culture' (Mungiu-Pippidi 2003), a belief also endorsed by famous 20th century writers on culture such as Samual Huntington (1972), Aaron Wildafsky (1980) and George Kennan (1989). Geertz (1973) along with other contemporary writers (Verba 1969; Schmitt 1972) believed that political culture is an integral part of general culture, and highlighted the political texture embedded within the general culture (Mungiu-Pippidi 2003).

There are perhaps three seminal works on culture that have been very influential in the field of cross-cultural management from an international dimension: Adler's (1991) 'International dimensions of organisational behaviours'; Hofstede's (1980) 'Cultural consequences'; and Trompenaar's (1993) 'Riding the waves of culture'. These were pioneering in their own way but have been the focus of much criticism

in recent years. Hofstede's (1980) 'collective programming of the mind' created five dimensions to express differences in culture (See Figure 4.1). His work in particular has come under much scrutiny and criticism with the main area of concern arising from his research methodology. Critics object to the fact that Hofstede's research is entirely based on an attitude survey questionnaire which they contend is the least appropriate way of studying culture (Tayeb 1996; Bond 2002; Gooderham and Nordhaug 2003).

Figure 4.1 Hofstede's 5 dimensions to express differences in culture



Source: Management and Organisational Behaviour. Mullins, L. (2005:810)

Hofstede's framework (1999) as a basis for analysing culture has been questioned by Bond (2002) who argues that the validity of the dimensions used in the research are insufficient to convey cultural differences, but the most common criticism is that the sample used is not representative. Hofstede's sample was drawn from a single company - IBM, based in the US and comprised of largely 'middle class' employees. Trompenaar's research was similar to Hofstede (Gooderham and Nordhaug 2003), and has been criticised for the same reasons.

The criticisms of their research serve to demonstrate the complexities of defining national culture and the inextricable problems faced when conducting research in this field. Each country of analysis according to Hofstede (1999) has its own unique defining features and any attempt to categorise can be offensive to that country. All models have their limitations and pose constraints in their application, but in many cases their purpose is to present a workable structure for researchers of culture, whilst acknowledging the limitations. The main problems with using models of comparative analysis when looking at culture are that such studies assume that nations and organisations have single cultures or dominant cultures and thus overlook or simplify diversity and difference. Predominantly Western models are used as reference points when examining culture. This may be equally problematic as American and Europe are very different but are 'Western'. The countries of Europe do not share a common set of cultural characteristics, hence to talk of a 'European' model to explain culture is problematic. The models also have a tendency toward ethnocentrism. This is 'an exaggerated tendency to think the characteristics of one's own group or race is superior to those of other groups or races' (Drever 1952). Finally they often reduce complexity and difference to unifying and sometimes offensive stereotypes.

4.3 Factors shaping research into organisation culture

Contemporary writers debating about culture (Alas and Vadi 2004; Bowen 2004; Enes and de Vries 2004, Johnson and Scholes 2008) suggest that early researchers into organisational culture worked in a 'closed shop' type of environment, choosing to ignore differences of opinion with other researchers, concentrating on a single point of view and not citing other perspectives. Cultural literature, however, has been more forthcoming in highlighting these intellectual disagreements, openly arguing for one point of view in preference to another, and describing the alternatives, (Alvesson and Berg 1992, Calas and Smircich 1987, Frost et al. 1991, Kunda 1991).Fundamental disagreements about epistemology, methodology, political ideology and theory, have been argued comprehensively. This suggests that the seriousness of intellectual differences create a picture of chaos rather than order, conflict rather than consensus, with little progress in the cumulative advance of knowledge. It suggests that some researchers prefer qualitative methodology,

developing context-specific descriptions of culture rather than collecting quantitative data that blend themselves to systematic meta-analysis and the development of empirically-based theoretical generalisations. This lack of paradigm consensus may inhibit the accumulation of knowledge, harm the reputation of the field, or draw attention to textual analysis rather than the material conditions of work (Donaldson 1989, Pfeffer 1993, Reed 1990). Conversely, other scholars welcome paradigm differences, so evident in the cultural field, as a spur to creativity and the proliferation of previously silenced viewpoints (Burrell and Morgan 1979, Van Maanen 1995, Goffee and Jones 2003).

A renaissance of interest in organisational culture occurred in the 1970s, probably stimulated by the successes of Japanese management and the perceived failure of traditional organisational analysts to awaken managerial interest in corporate culture (Turner 1990). The vanguard of new cultural researchers generally was critical of mainstream research which, in the USA and UK, emphasised quantitative, normal science. They considered this approach arid and fruitless as it was overly reliant on the rational model of human behaviour, a structured approach to questions of corporate strategy, and a reliance on numerical analysis.

In response to the dissatisfaction of quantitative studies, many of the first tranche of widely influential culture publications were managerially orientated and written for a popular audience. One of these was Peters and Waterman (1982), which argued that effective cultural leaders could create strong cultures based around their own values. This approach became commonly known as ‘value’ engineering (or management), and was popularised by other literature written primarily for executives and MBA readers (Deal and Kennedy 1982, Ouchi 1981, Pascale and Athos 1981). A flurry of activity among managerial-oriented academic researchers resulted in a number of studies being produced (Pfeffer 1981, Pondy et al. 1983, Sergiovanni and Corbally 1984, Sathe 1985, Eng 1988), defining culture as an internally consistent package of cultural manifestations that generate organisation-wide consensus, usually around some set of shared values. The studies that share these characteristics were termed ‘integration’ research, and many of them had

'value management' overtones (Ott 1989, Ouchi and Wilkins 1985, Schultz 1994 and Trice and Beyer 1993).

The 'fragmentation' perspective of culture was postulated by (Martin 1992), who claims that the relationships among the manifestations of an organisational culture are neither clearly consistent nor clearly inconsistent, and that the relationships are complex, containing elements of contradiction and confusion. Similarly, consensus is not organisation wide or specific to a particular sub-culture, but is transient and issue-related, producing short-lived affinities that are quickly replaced as a different issue attracts the attention of the members of the culture (Kreiner and Schultz 1993, Handy and Clegg 2003). Lack of consistency, lack of consensus, and ambiguity are the hallmarks of the fragmentation view, with power diffused at all levels of the organisation's hierarchy and throughout its environment. Change is a constant flux, rather than an intermittent interruption in an otherwise stable state, and because change is triggered by the environment or external influences beyond the individual's control, fragmentation studies of change offer few guidelines for those who would normally control the change process (Keyton 2011).

In addition to the advocates of categorisation of the foregoing studies, there are others who consider it a simplification to allocate this research to one of the three perspectives, and would argue that any organisational culture at any point of time will have some aspects congruent with all three (Frost et al. 1991, Martin 1992, Meyerson and Martin 1998 Boje, Burnes and Hassard 2012). Thus, there are supporters of a meta-theoretical framework encompassing the three perspectives, who claim that when a cultural context is viewed from all three perspectives, a deeper understanding will emerge. Again, however, this is not a universal viewpoint (Martin 1992:192), 'this tripartite classification scheme is based on a series of under constructed dichotomies that position the perspectives in opposition to one another, ignores aspects of theories and studies that straddle boundaries, omits unclassifiable research or relegates it to a marginalised place in the text, and reserves treatment of issues that transcend these categories for separate parts of the text'.

Finally, having presented a synopsis of research into organisational culture, the phenomena of postmodern views on culture needs to be mentioned, which has been described as the most profound, potentially disruptive, and possibly insightful development in cultural studies to date (Calas and Smircich 1987, Czarniawska-Joerges 1992, Linstead and Graften-Small 1991, McGuigan 2006, Leslie 2009). Postmodernism is a discourse rather than a theory and, as such, is very difficult to rationally identify or define. It suggests that there is no reality, draws attention to disorder, and offers a multiplicity of contradictory interpretations of all circumstances and situations. It appears to focus on the interpretation of language or text of studies, using analytical techniques such as deconstruction to 'reveal' strategies the author has used to represent 'truth' claims. Postmodern analysis often takes the form of critiques or parodies – 'carnivalesque writing that steadfastly maintains a marginalised position' (Clegg and Hardy, 2005: 358). These critiques attempt to overturn a disciplinary and prejudicial order through the articulation of ambiguity and contradiction from the margin, but then fails to produce alternative visions to try to further progress the cause of cultural study (Calas and Smircich 1988, Willmott 1993, Mcguigan 2006). Postmodernism challenges ideas which are the foundation of modern science: rationality, order, clarity, realism, truth, and intellectual progress (Baudrillard 1983, Foucault 1976, Derrida 1976, Lyotard 1984).

4.4 Romanian Culture

The evidence presented predominantly suggests that definitions of national culture are nebulous and cover a multitude of elements, whilst some emphasise the all embracing nature of culture other definitions concentrate on the psychological state of mind, with others focusing on group behaviour and norm values. Early writers try to cram in as much as possible such as Kluckholm and Strodtbeck (1961), and Schein (1981), and who argue that culture value orientations 'include views of human nature, the relationship of man to nature, time orientation, orientation towards activity and types of relations between people. Cultural values may be expressed in moral codes, commitments to legalism or voluntarism, regionalism, religious values, and the extent to which social integration and accommodation are widely accepted social goals' (Hollinshead and Leat 1995:10). A common core

element is that culture is a shaping process existing when members of a group or society share a distinct way of life with common behaviours, values and attitudes that are established gradually over time and embedded as a dynamic process. (Harris, Brewster and Sparrow 2003). Billig said of culture and national identity;

> …. ' *is to be found in the embodied habits of social life. Such habits include those of thinking and using language. To have a national identity is to possess ways of talking about nationhood. As a number of critical social psychologists have been emphasizing, the social psychological study of identity should involve the detailed study of discourse…. Having a national identity also involves being situated physically, legally, socially, as well as emotionally: typically, it means being situated within a homeland, which itself is situated within the world of nations. And, only if people believe that they have national identities, will such homelands, and the world of national homelands, be reproduced.*' (Billig 1995: 8)

To complicate matters further in his book 'Imagined Communities' Anderson (1983:6) argues that 'nation' is a form of 'imagined community' and claims a nation is ' An imagined community – and imagined as both inherently limited and sovereign'. It is imagined because the members of even smaller states will never know most of their fellow members, meet them, or even hear of them, yet in the minds of each lives the image of their communion. This explanation of nation makes an attempt to define national culture more difficult. As an example, In the case of Romania, the nation comprises of eight states, has six main ethnic groups and thirteen minority ethnic groups, with two million Roma. The major cities have been influenced by a distinctive mixture of nationalities: Hungarian, German, Gypsy and Jewish traditional styles set in a land of mountains and forests, folklore and tradition, and mystery. The development of states like Romania in the nineteenth century was a product of elite action but this was undertaken in the name of the people who had to be portrayed as the basis of the national project. This created a contradictory situation. On the one hand the nation was a product of modernity, on the other its essence was to be found in tradition, pre-modernity, the countryside

rather than the town. This ambiguous relationship between modernity, identity and culture continues to this day, and remains something of a challenge when trying to develop a contemporary structure such as a knowledge building community. Opening the minds of the RBP managers to embrace a new approach to organisation development was initially difficult. New approaches have been difficult to accept, having lived through decades where organisational processes had changed very little under 'communism'.

The historical and political development of Romania needs to be understood when discussing culture, and was elaborated on in Chapter three. However, Paraianu (2004) identifies several defining features of the nineteenth century culturalist movement that influenced and shaped Romanian culture. First he cites the young generation of intellectual thinkers at the time. The influence of Western European philosophy, particularly German, at the end of the nineteenth century shaped the thinking of these and Romanian politicians, philosophers and artists. Western political ideologies, Darwinism, Wagnerian mythology and Nietzschean philosophy were adopted by parts of the Romanian intelligentsia, who were dismayed by what they saw as the immobility of the political elite at the time (Paraianu 2004). This young generation of intellectuals offered a new meaning to the notion of 'culture' and began a cultural movement based on the idea that culture was less the result of education, and more a natural inherited characteristic of the 'folk', its traditions, customs and racial individuality. Education now began to be seen as a factor of estrangement to national culture. As early as 1907 Ian Slavici said that the union of folk is the union of culture, and folk is the guarantee of national unity because the social elite have customs and habits fatally foreign. Nationalism and national culture became the expression of national character, determination, and spirit. Caroll suggests that,

> *'Culture defined as the most profound expression of an authentic, unified people could be and was of course used as an explicit political weapon against all those who did not, or would not or were not allowed to, identify or to be identified with the national collectively'…*
> (Caroll 1995:20)

Caroll then goes on to discuss 'race' claiming that this is not a natural or a biological concept but a cultural idea to be created, and protected.

> *'The collectivity thus becomes a race not by birth or blood but rather through the struggle to rid itself of what is foreign to it and in this way found itself'* (Caroll 1995:26).

When carrying out this research one of the noticeable cultural differences was the Romanian manager's attitude to race, and the overt racist comments made, particularly about black people. In the late nineteenth century the idea of 'race' played an important role in the literary ideology of Romania and became the cornerstone of the national programme. A new anti-Semitic trend flourished in Romania at this time and it became a cultural code. Professing anti- Semitism became a sign of cultural identity and clearly being aligned to a specific cultural camp (Volkov 1978). Anti- Semitism has been a problem in Romania for centuries but it was in the nineteenth and twentieth century that it took on mass support. Even now Romania has a nationalist and anti-Semitic **'**Greater Romania Party' (PRM)', led by Corneliu Vadim Tudor, which became the second largest party in the Romanian parliament after it won 21% of the vote in the November 2000 elections (Gallagher 2004). This party continues an ongoing slander campaign against former Jewish communists and against Israeli and Jewish businessmen in Romania. This is an embarrassment to other sections of the Romanian population and something they don't want to be associated with in the world arena. There are also problems of small nationalist, xenophobic and anti-Semitic Iron Guard, or Legionnaire, groups (derived from the wartime fascist movement) who form the extra-parliamentary extreme right wing in Romania. 'Nests' (the original name of local branches of the movement) of such groups exist in various localities. The Bucharest 'nest' of the Legionnaire movement owns the Majadahonda publishing house, which issues works by the founder of the Iron Guard, Codreanu (Gallagher 2004).

Other features of the culturalist movement as defined by Paraianu (2009) include that of the liberal tradition. It was one of argumentative nationalism becoming

obsolete and surpassed by lyrical nationalism. This new type of nationalism was more romantic, emotional and expressive and appealed to the sentimentality of the Romanian 'folk'. A number of poets, writers and artists came into the arena at this time such as Mihai Eminescu. His poems are a typical example of 'lyrical nationalism' of which Eminescu was famous for. Writing from 1850-89 Eminescu has become Romania's national poet. His work became a superlative expression of ethnic sensibility and axiology, and represents the spirit of a patriot. His poetry is a plea for liberating the individual as well as the community from servitude, and is akin to the works of Byron, Shelley and Hugo (Martin 2002).

Finally, the culturalist movement carried a radical ethos against all things 'modern'. Contemporary modern society (bourgeois) was despised by the Romanian intellectuals of the nineteenth century, where they felt incongruous. Modern civilisation represented urban, fragmented, capitalist, individualist, atheism and cosmopolitan, everything they mistrusted including democratic values (Paraianu 2009). On this basis a national offensive, a revolution, began and their cause was to save the nation from the peril of modernity. The main themes presented help us understand the foundations on which Romanian culture has been built, and has given an insight into the emergence of the culturalist movement in Romania, explaining the historical and political context in which it developed.

Manoukovsky (1993) suggested that the Soviet era led to a loss of Russian identity for the Russian people which had to be nurtured anew. In its place was imposed the 'Soviet mindset', a product of two generations of propaganda, command economy, institutionalised terror, and stagnation. Generally writers on the Communism regime in Romania claim it was less severe, and the effects less damaging, but there are obvious consequences and legacies of living in a dictatorship for over forty years. The Romanian people were able to hang on to their identity encouraged by Gheorghiu-Dej. After his death in 1965 Ceausescu took over, but by this time Gheorghiu-Dej had already forged a 'New course' for Romania's economy and set Romania on a road of independence within the Eastern Bloc, defying Soviet hegemony. Links were developed with China and Yugoslavia both of which had split with the USSR on a number of issues. Gheorghiu - Dej also established programmes

of de-Russification and a programme of 'Romanisation'. This being the case then transition after 1989 ought to have been smoother for the Romanians than it had been for other eastern bloc countries, but for countless reasons their transition has been difficult, mainly due to the predatory ruling class and the obstacles in the way of better governance due to lack of public pressure for reform (Gallagher 2004).

There are elements in each country's history and culture that make it distinctive and unique (Luthans 2005) in cultural changes, rather than simply wiping out the effect of the communist legacy, represent changes in whole social cultural *systems* whose roots stretch back down the centuries, and of which the communist years form a part. The idea of a distinctive Romanian psyche has not been expounded in the West, unlike the attention given to the notion of Russian psyche. The USSR as the 'other' world power was once portrayed by writers and politicians as having a specific psyche, reinforced by the Great Russian novelists, and scholars such as Hingley (1978), Balzer (1992), and Solzhenitsyn (1991) emphasising the spiritual dimension of the typical Russian mentality, and by implication contrasted it with the materialism both of the contemporary West and the defunct Soviet era. Indeed, the West has had more exposure to Russian culture than any other, more is known of Russian writers, painters, composers and politicians. Hardly any exposure has been given to Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, and Poland. As Ruegg (2006) writes, Romania is not understood by the outside world, it does not provoke indifference, it is either hated or loved. It is misunderstood and because of this is sometimes despised. It is the country furthest away from the UK in the continent and is located in the most eastern most part of Europe. Sometimes it is admired for the high cultural level of some of its intellectual politicians. Ruegg qualifies the statements with an explanation that one of the reasons it is 'loved' is because of its Latin character, and 'hated' for the broadcast of its orphanages. Ironically 206 Swiss towns have 'twinned' with Romanian villages since the mid 1980s to support the movement against Ceausescu's restructuring of the land and destruction of villages. Romania has succeeded in raising Western sympathy for its tendency to oppose 'sovietisation'. Katherine Verdery in her book 'The Political Life of Dead Bodies' (2000), has done more to unveil the complexities of Romanian culture through explaining its multicultural composition through history.

4.5 Post Communism - Romanian Culture Redefined?

Recent years have seen a number of studies aiming to apply dimensional models of culture to the transitional countries of Central and Eastern Europe (Bollinger, 1994; Perlaki, 1994; Nasierowski and Mikula 1998; Johnson, Lenartowicz, and Apud 2006). However, analysis of the organisational cultures of Romania is hampered by the absence of large-scale studies to operationalise and measure features of diversity and convergence. Researchers and writers both in CEE and the West have used the most well-known dimensional frameworks of culture. Moreover others have made important contributions to understanding cultural diversity in the region, by carrying out smaller-scale qualitative studies and/or writing from their deep personal experience and knowledge of the region (Holden *et al,* 1998; Kostera, 1996; Jankowicz, 1999, Verdery 2000).

There are important factors to consider when researching in a post-communist country. The use of the culture factor to explain difficulties in 'west to east' knowledge transfer programmes implies a certain fit between culture, the 'transnational social space' of the 'host country', and the organisational context. No such fit can be assumed in the case of the researcher/RBP relationship.

The Western consultants/researcher working in Romania may experience environment and culture as one and the same. However, particularly with the advent of EU accession, the pace of environmental change has accelerated considerably, and may not be matched by a corresponding change in culture, which might be expected to be relatively stable over time. Two main historical threads intertwine in the Western European experience of Romanian culture: the idea of a pre-communist 'traditional' Romanian culture, and the overlay of a communist culture. In addition to this other threads can be woven in, for example after 1989 a transformation or 'normalisation' of culture was instigated by the Romanian Government (Ratiu 2005). Ratiu (2005:102) claimed that the purpose of 'normalisation' was to liberate from the 'strongly propagandistic task of being an ideological instrument used to shape 'the new man' of the communist era and to

construct ‘the multilateral developed socialist society’. The main task for the newly created Romanian Ministry of Culture is to promote a new identity of society reflecting and constructing one of a consumption society, in a new Europe.

Indeed much has been done recently to promote Romania on the world stage as a ‘brand state’. The Ministry of Culture has created a government quango for promoting national identity in the form of a union: ‘National Alliance of the Creators Union’ (ANUC). The union comprises of a body of artists namely ‘cultural creators’, who at the annual symposium in November 1998 clearly stated that culture was primarily the ‘carrier and generator of identity’ (Ratiu 2005:104). This move towards a deliberate attempt to regenerate a ‘Romanian’ culture was reinforced at the presidential address of Ion Iliescu at the National Cultural Forum: ‘The Romanian Culture's Status and Perspectives at the Beginning of a New Millennium’ (June 2002). The purpose of the forum was to define a national strategy for re-establishing a Romanian culture, and continued the ongoing debate previously the mandate of the regional cultural forums: ‘Culture, as part of our national being, is meant to assert our national identity within the globalised world of the future’. Therefore, the intervention of the Romanian State in supporting culture is mainly founded on a justification of national interest supporting artists as ‘guarantors of the national cultural identity’, which they believe is attainable (on an international scale), as they are committed to ‘affirming and imposing the Romanian culture on the international stage’ (Ratiu 2005:104). The idea that Romania has had to construct, and forcefully market, a national culture is somewhat disconcerting and uncomfortable. It might be questioned as to why Romania has set up a union to promote national culture, and why have they had to make such an effort to construct their culture in such a synthetic inorganic way. Reading through the promotional literature on Romania (tour guides, holiday brochures) it is clear that they are anxious to sell themselves on the world stage. Holiday brochures refer to ‘the favourite events of the year such as ‘The Day of Romanian Culture’, ‘The Year of Romania’, and speak of centenaries to commemorate various historical events and celebrations of scholars and artists. They expose Romania’s festive-glorifying character through art and are keen to ensure that the reader is aware that these are under the ministry and presidential patronage. In 2003 the Ministry of Culture

was making a concerted effort to make Romania a 'brand state' (Ham 2001), and were making considerable progress.

This section has examined the influences on Romanian national culture, concentrating on the government and regime factors. The influences on culture are many, and the following factors also have a considerable impact on national culture which could have varied the development:

- colonial power influences
- religion
- very recent and rapid industrialisation
- climate, distance and language

These are only a few of the possible major influences which will help mould and shape an organisational culture. It does, therefore, seem imperative that before any attempt is made at cross-cultural exchange, both parties should make efforts to gain as much insight and understanding as possible, of the cultural elements of the other organisation. Basic issues such as civil rights, equal opportunities, employment conditions, management structures, equipment availability, current operational methods, and any other factors which may impact upon the way transferred knowledge will be translated and assimilated, or suggested practice changes can be effectively implemented. In the light of such knowledge, it may be necessary for both parties to make modifications or adjustments to ensure the proposals can be successfully integrated into a new culture. In any discussions, both sides ought to be open and frank (without being offensive) and reach mutual agreement before any transfer. This consensus should eliminate doubts or suspicions in the receiving organisation, and alleviate any feelings that the new arrangements are a type of imposition.

4.6 Defining organisation culture

Having presented some of the main theories and research paradigms of national culture this section hones in on organisation culture, before examining the RBP organisation culture. As with national culture the theme is complex. To illustrate this complexity Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) catalogue over 164 definitions of

organisational culture. Figure 4.2 catalogues some of the definitions over a sixty year period. The definitions offered have degrees of emphasis of the various aspects of culture but there tends to be a general consensus that organisational culture is about shared beliefs and values.

Figure 4.2: Definitions of Organisational Culture

Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952)	Transmitted patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic systems that shape behaviour of an organization
Hofstede (1980)	"The collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organization from another. This included shared beliefs, values and practices that distinguished one organization to another" (Hofstede, 1980).
Swartz and Jordon (1980)	Patterns of beliefs and expectations shared by members that produce norms shaping behaviour
Ouchi (1981)	Set of symbols, ceremonies and myths that communicate the underlying values and beliefs of the organization to its employees
Martin and Siehl (1983)	Glue that holds together an organization through shared patterns of meaning. Three component systems: context or core values, forms (process of communication, e.g., jargon), strategies to reinforce content (e.g., rewards, training programs)
Uttal (1983)	Shared values (what is important) and beliefs (how things work) that interact with an organization's structures and control systems to produce behavioural norms (the way we do things around here)
Adler (1986)	Refers to something that shared by all or almost all members of some social groups - something that the older members of the group try to pass on to the younger members and - something that shapes behaviour or structures of the organization
Denison (1990)	Refers to the underlying values, beliefs and principles that serve as a foundation for an organization's management system as well as the set of management practices and behaviours that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles
Trompenaars (1993)	Is the way in which people solved problems. It is a shared

	system of meanings. It dictates what we pay attention to, how we act and what we value.
Goffee (1996)	an outcome of how people related to one another
Schneider (1997)	Shared patterns of behaviour and the meaning of that behaviour
Cameron and Quinn (1999)	What is valued, the dominant leadership styles, the language success that make an organization unique
Sullivan (2001)	Refers to the total lifestyle of a people, including all the values, ideas, knowledge, behaviours and material objects that they share
Wood (2001)	The systems of shared beliefs and values that develops within an organization or within its sub-units and that guides the behavior of its members
Wiesner (2002)	A way of looking at organizations by its shared values and behaviour
Thomas and Tung (2003)	Refers to evolving set shared beliefs, values, attitudes and logical processes which provides cognitive maps for people within a given societal group to perceive, think, reason, act, react and interact
Anthon (2004)	Is the set of values, beliefs and understanding shared by an organization's employees and it ranks among an organization's most powerful component
Taylor (2004)	Refers to what is created from the messages that are received about how people are expected to behave in the organization
Wagner (2005)	An informal, shared way of perceiving life and membership in the organization that binds members together and influences what they think about themselves and their Work
Schein (1985)	"A pattern of basic assumptions – invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with the problems of external adaptation and internal integration – that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to these problems. Schein (1985) quoted from(Leadership and organisational culture)

Source: A Review Paper on Organisational Culture and Organizational Performance Abu-Jarad et al (2010:35)

All models of organisational culture consist of multi-dimensional facets of different layers of the organisation as seen in Figure 4.2, and highlights only a few, including those facets which are considered measurable and cover all aspects of organisational life.

Two quotes from anthropological definitions of culture may be useful when trying to understand the complexity of organisation culture. The first from Tylor (1871) who defined culture as;

> '*Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society'. (2010:1)*

The second definition from Kroeber and Kluckholn (1952) asserts;

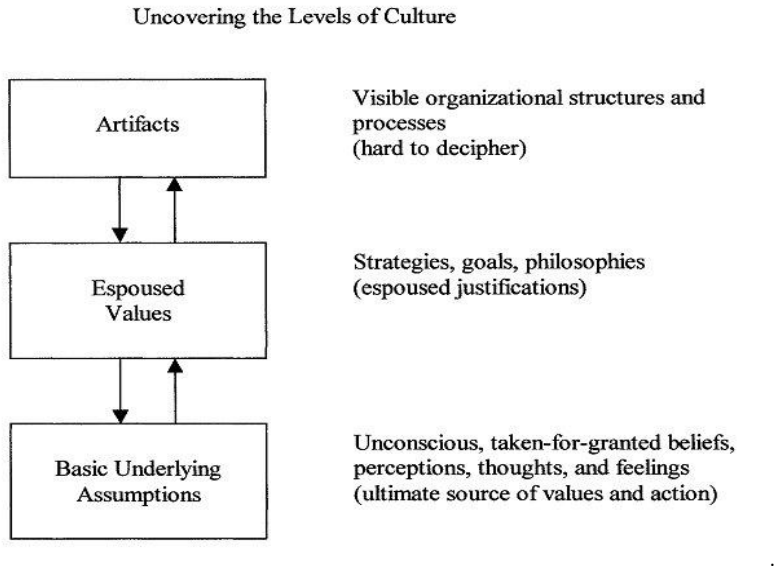
> *'Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other as conditioning elements of further action'. (1952:181)*

More contemporary definitions include that of Robbin, Odendaal and Roodt (2004) who claim that organisational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organisation from other organisation. Kreitner and Kinicki (2010), believe that organisational culture refers to shared values and beliefs that underlie a company's identity. In common with most other definitions they believe a culture is a system with a shared set of ideas and values. Culture is the product of actions of the group and its work, and culture is learned and shapes behaviour and influences perceptions.

Schein's model of Cultural Layers is seen as 'one of the most cited cultural models' and is also seen as 'one that serves a high degree of abstraction and complexity reduction' (Lillis and Tian 2010). Within this model (Figure 4.3), Schein has examined observable and unobservable layers of culture. These he labelled Artefacts, Espoused Beliefs/Values and Basic Assumptions. Methodological approaches used to understand these layers included observations, interviews and questionnaires leading to qualitative analysis. Schein undertook the measurement of Artefacts through observation, Values through quantitative questionnaires and examined the Underlying Assumptions through in-depth interviews. As mentioned by Scott et al (2003), the use of both approaches in this study allowed the researcher to measure the overall culture of the organisation by self-reporting questionnaires, individuals behaviour and perceptions. This gave a more comprehensive picture of the culture. Schein's ability to conduct a study with such scope, employing a full range of both qualitative and quantitative methods, based upon a successful model allowing a full in-depth investigation of culture, is perhaps the key reason as to why he is recognised as one of the leading researchers in this area. The research methods employed for this doctoral study has taken Schein's measurements of culture into consideration, and explains how access was given to RBP artefacts (strategy documents), as a means of understanding the bigger strategic picture, and helps explains the cultural complexity of the organisation.

The observable elements are overt aspects of the organisation visible to those inside and outside the organisation. Whether this is individual's behaviour, an organisation's branding, logo and mission statement or a formal working environment, including dress code and work space, these observable elements create an instant impression of an organisation's culture. An organisation with a policy for casual dress, and open plan offices can indicate a more modern, perhaps alternate style organisation.

Figure: 4.3 Organisation Cultural Layers Model



Source: Schein, E. H. Organisational Culture and Leadership, (2004:26).

However, Schein warns that the visible content can often be 'easy to observe difficult to decipher' (2004:26). In carrying out the research caution was taken not to form an opinion of the RBP at face value. Visiting the organisation and speaking to RBP employees was crucial groundwork before starting the research. Examining this element of Schein's work raises questions over the true face of an organisation. Scott (2003:939) refers to the 'public and private face of individuals', referring to how individuals present themselves to the public, and how this is different to how they present themselves to their friends in a social situation. Generally at work individuals are on their best behaviour as not to corrupt the vision of the organisation, or operate outside of the norm values. This is paradoxical in the case of the RBP who to the outside world were a corrupt and unethical organisation trading on relationships, and grace and favour.

Although the use of observations provide a 'detailed and meaningful examination of values/beliefs and assumptions' (Jung et al 2007:31), the approach can be 'time-consuming and costly' (Jung et al 2007:34). The organisation and 'individuals could feel intimidated and frustrated' (2007:34) that a consultant or researcher is observing and passing judgement. Another negative aspect can often be that

'researchers personal and professional experiences, knowledge and biases can influence the observations' Jung et al (2007:35), again creating a set of results, which it could be argued, have become distorted. All of this needs to be considered when justifying using a qualitative approach to culture.

Schein (2004) describes the 'Espoused Values' as an individual's own beliefs. The theory indicates that when faced with a task the individual will use beliefs to make an understanding of what they think is right and wrong, particularly in the process of problem solving. If this is seen to work then this will be shared with the group members and therefore this ideology becomes part of 'the way we do things', the organisational culture. In the time afforded to explore the RBP culture it was not possible to gain an understanding of the 'deeper levels of culture, values and assumptions, but as the research developed a deeper understanding emerged. Equally there is no way of ensuring that an RBP employee would answer in a truthful manner to some of the questions asked. Again an employee may have some anxiety of what is being asked and measured and how this may affect them individually, therefore altering, even if on a sub-conscious level their initial response. When taking into account the positives and negatives already discussed, it is easy to understand why researchers would suggest 'it would be advisable to use a combination of both' (Jung et al 2007:36) as advocated by Yauch and Steudel, (2003).These are covert aspects of culture which can be described as the 'unconscious, taken for granted, beliefs, perceptions, thoughts and feelings' (Schein, 2004:26). These are often hard to change and when this aspect of culture works, it can often be the element that helps to solve problems.

The layers described by Schein are simplified in Herman's metaphor of the 'Iceberg' (1970). Herman's cultural iceberg model reinforces the impact of culture on organisational effectiveness and demonstrates how the formal and informal aspects are linked to one another. The formal aspects lie above the water, these are the tip of the iceberg and are observable as discussed earlier in Schein's Cultural Layers model and the informal aspects lie beneath the water and are deeply rooted. These are considered to be basic assumptions or perhaps the 'taken-for-granted'

beliefs/values that are not recognisable. This is perhaps considered the area which sparks most debate between the use of qualitative and quantitative evidence and

how researchers capture the beliefs and assumptions and count for the perceptions and attitudes of individuals within organisations. Discussions around how people remain generally negative towards any work place are accounted for and how the beliefs and attitudes of the workplace are passed around from person to person. Similar arguments and issues arise as those discussed above in reference to this research and collation of evidence.

The analytical methods used in an assessment of RBP culture, and the findings will be presented in section 4.7. Hofstede's cultural model and Johnson and Scholes (2008) Cultural Web have been used to give some meaning to the RBP culture. Johnson and Scholes (2008) Cultural Web is based on Schein's (1985) Cultural Layers, with all elements overlapping one another to illustrate how they can be connected in more than one segment. In this model instruments used to measure culture would involve asking questions to employees, company partners and customers. The model offers an uncomplicated framework for analysis and is straightforward to apply. It was originally designed to analyse the different facets or areas of organisational culture. This model was designed to identify the taken-for-granted assumptions with the paradigm being the central position of the organisation (Figure 4.4). The web focuses on individual perceptions of the organisation which is then analysed by managers in order to get an understanding of what is required of the organisation and to detect what is working and what is not and therefore to identify what may need to be changed. The application of this model and the findings were collaboratively worked on between the researcher and the RBP managers and can be found in Figure 4.8

Figure 4.4: The Cultural Web

Source: Management and Organisational Behaviour – Mullins, L. (2005:744)

Figure 4.5: Aspects of the Cultural Web

Routine:	The ways that members of the organisation behave towards each other and towards those outside the organisation and which make up how things are done or how things should happen.
Rituals:	The special events through which the organisation emphasises what is particularly important and can include formal organisational processes and informal processes.
Stories:	As told by members of the organisation which embed the present and flag up important events and personalities, and typically have to do with successes, failures, heroes, villains, and mavericks.
Symbols	Such as logos, offices, cars, titles, type of language or terminology commonly used which become a shorthand representation of the nature of the organisation.
Power structures	The most powerful individuals or groups in the organisation which may be based on management position and seniority but in some organisations power can be lodged with other levels or functions.
Control systems	The measurement and reward systems that emphasise what it is important to monitor, and to focus attention and activity upon for example, stewardship of funds or quality of service.

Organisation structure	This reflects power structures and delineates important relationships and activities within the organisation, and involves both formal structure and control and less formal systems.
Paradigm	This encapsulates and reinforces the behaviours observed in other elements of the cultural web, and sits at the heart of the model.

Source: Management and Organisational Behaviour – Mullins, L. (2005:744)

Accepting the premise that the actions and ideas of a group affect the behaviour of succeeding groups, it could be reasonably accepted that different types of organisations have different cultures. The complexity and diversity of the entities which call themselves 'organisations', indicates that there could be a plethora of cultures in all the possible circumstances. In the case of this research, some of the differences between the researcher and the Romanian Border Police are obvious. The way in which they are funded, work experience, education, the management structure, their status in society, and their operational practices and methods are examples of difference. Of course, the most obvious difference is their location, and the fact that generally the process involves people with a different national culture.

One of the major differences between business organisations is the pace and nature of events which may have had an effect on their culture. Over centuries national culture has slowly evolved, usually only influenced by the movement of people in and out of regions, or by significant events such as major wars or revolutions. The advent of globalisation, with giant strides in communication and travel, will lessen the effectiveness of borders and boundaries, speeding the pace of change in many societies and complicating the concept of national culture and identity. On the other hand, in industrialised nations, modern business organisations have been affected by market forces, social expectations and technological advancement. Thus, not only have organisations been forced to meet these challenges by making changes which may affect their culture, but often managers have sought to gain advantage by making changes when there was no obvious reason for doing so, often with no tangible benefit, as is the case with the RBP. Without necessarily being a supporter of the fragmentation perspective, it does appear that some managers will make significant operational changes almost on a whim, and the

disparate elements (human and operational) comprising an organisation, will confuse the perception of managers and complicate the task of researchers seeking consensus and consistency.

Many of the management practices, in many cases called re-organisations, which could impact upon the culture of a business organisation, have been extensively used in the industrially developed nations (Mullins 2005:619), initially, in the early 1970s, some of these were transferred to the West from Japan. The major ones have included structural changes (often the flattening out of hierarchical structures), mergers, down-sizing, diversification, out-sourcing and relocation; and others possibly having less of an impact have included quality circles, team building (to engender comradeship and encourage synergetic working), incentive schemes, regular team briefing, and what some companies have called 'the big idea' (the use of a few key words intended to express what the purpose and key values of the organisation are). Probable external influences on culture change have arisen from employment and discrimination legislation, health and safety legislation, trade union involvement, take-overs (sometimes resulting in asset stripping), regulation (many large industries now operate under government appointed regulators) and enlargement of, and free movement within, the EU.

Although all of the above factors will have had some affect on organisational culture, the greatest affect will have resulted from computer and information technology development (and the consequent advances in data processing and networking), and from the industrialisation of Eastern European and their comparatively low standard of living. Now they have the means for doing so, in the interest of cost efficiency, many former major Western companies (now global companies) have switched customer service activities (such as call centres) to the Far East, and manufacturing processes to Eastern Europe and Asia. While these moves may dramatically change perceptions of the cultures of these organisations, they will progressively facilitate the transfer of knowledge across cultures, with a similar effect on cross-cultural management.

Whatever cultural state exists in an organisation, it is apparent that at some stage it will be affected by the changing requirements of the business. Although forecasting when external influences and pressures may occur is extremely difficult to predict. The RBP managers were not communicating effectively throughout the organisation to keep colleagues aware of the need to keep abreast of likely unsettling external events, and an awareness of 'the bigger picture' in which the organisation operates. If this had been part of the strategy it might have assisted in giving an anticipatory or earlier recognition of when events necessitate change in the organisation, whether this is RBP wide or departmental. Not only would this have given more time for preparation of change, but in theory would also give an advantage over other border police forces. There should have been consultation to determine what corrective steps were necessary, for the organisation to be responsive, flexible and adaptable to implement and operate these measures. If this involves 'down-sizing' or other punitive measures impinging on loyalty and trust, it could have such a demoralising affect on the workforce, and managers would almost have to start from scratch to create the circumstances and atmosphere from which a new culture could emerge. These processes can become very protracted, suggesting that in the more dynamic sectors of business and commerce, many organisational cultures will be in an almost constant state of flux

4.7 Romanian Organisations and Management Styles

The earlier sections of this chapter present a theoretical representation of culture generally and later focus more specifically on the development of Romanian Culture. The concern was not to make assumptions about the RBP culture but to demonstrate practically how a representation of organisational culture could be achieved through the models, tools and techniques of analysis, and how the work carried out for this chapter was necessary, and greatly facilitated a cultural understanding of the RBP managers for the research to follow. As referred to earlier Schein wrote of how 'observable elements' can reveal national and organisation culture. Some of the experiences of Romanian culture are recorded in the section, and constitute those observed elements. Remnants of the communist mind-set remain evident in some aspects of Romanian life, and are particularly seen in management style. As a Western university lecturer and researcher visiting this

country for the first time in 2004 the stark reality of the command and control style of management was blatantly evident, or 'old mentalities' as they are often referred to. For the Western management lecturer/researcher, the challenge of apprehending and understanding the influence of this 'Communist mind-set' is compounded by the existence of an underlying 'Romanian- ness' finding renewed expression, thanks to the removal of dictatorship, under Ceausescu. These two cultural layers are at once distinct and intertwined, and can be expected to contribute to massive complexities in cross-cultural relationships in the current climate of systemic change.

The most salient aspects of working with the RBP in Romania were found to be either predominately situational/environmental factors, such as transport, being a vegetarian, accommodation, security, language, and telecommunications; or organisational factors in the partnership. Contrary to expectations, communication breakdown was more likely to be explained by reference to situational than to cultural factors. However, some experiences emerged from the relationship that appear to be less temporally or organisationally bounded, including some aspects of observed managerial styles and behaviours, and social issues such as attitudes to food and drink; which can be more readily explained in cultural terms.

For the Western visitor Eastern European hotel standards and facilities can come as a revelation. Whilst the hotels were always clean they had a distinct shabby, old fashioned feel about them. The training rooms at the RBP were no more than a converted dining room. Materials were scarce such as paper and board markers, and it could take hours to get a couple of photocopies. The incident that exposed vast differences in culture was on the day of a mock exam. The day before the exam the University rules and regulations were explained and questions answered. The group were surprisingly curious but unperturbed by the pending ordeal. They all had experience of exams in Romania, and problems were not anticipated, but assumptions should never be made. On the day of the exam the tables had been set out appropriately ensuring sufficient space between each desk so to avoid the temptation to cheat. The exam began at 10am and with 5 minutes to go all were seated and exam papers given out. The exam started but within 10 minutes several

of the group were looking around the room, for inspiration? No, they were trying to catch the attention of peers to whisper for assistance. Eventually the whole group were moving in their chairs, turning round and talking to the person sat next to them. The exam was immediately stopped, an explanation given as to why, and restarted. However, even then the 'cheating' was repeated and it soon became clear that their understanding of cheating and ours were worlds apart. To 'cheat' in Romania is connected with fraud and corruption and to accuse the group of cheating was an insult of the highest order, particularly as the group comprised of a General, and other senior dignitaries in the RBP.

> *'Misunderstandings, borrowings removed from their context and reinterpreted, admiring limitation and disdainful aloofness- these are all signs familiar to specialists on the situations where cultures meet' (Bourdieu, 1971)*

4.8 The Organisation Culture of the Romanian Border Police

In order to conduct a cultural analysis of Romanian culture Hofstede's cultural model was applied. The study was conducted by the RBP at the start of the research programme. Interestingly they had never before had to think about their culture and how Romanians are represented on the world stage. As one of the managers said when questioned as to why he had never thought about his culture:

> *'why would we want to think about a national culture for ourselves, under Ceausescu every day we are told what to do at work, we never had to think for ourselves. Our culture was already defined through the political regimes and ruling classes, and we didn't stop to think about our culture. We just did as we were told, and got on with our work. We were only allowed to watch television two hours a day. Since 1989 we have gained more confidence. I am proud to be Romanian. I have thought about what it means to be Romanian. I am a patriot and proud of my Country, and I want my children to grow up in this culture and be proud also'.*

Hofstede's more recent work (2001) has ranked each of the main cultural factors of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and masculinity against the country analysed to produce indices of countries. Romania was not included in the indices so a preliminary attempt was made to extend this analysis, with all its faults, to the Romanian case using the RBP group as test subjects. The findings in Figure 4.6 are based on a synthesis of the data collected from the RBP managers' analysis of culture conducted in a formal meeting situation.

Figure 4.6 Socio-Cultural Analysis of Romania

Cultural dimensions	Observations and experience
Power distance	Hierarchical organisations High degree of autocratic leadership (legacy of Communist regime) Style of dress important i.e. uniforms displaying rank (status important) Personal style is warm, friendly and emotionally open Wide wealth differentials Lecturers, teachers, parents treated with respect High power distance
Uncertainty avoidance	Risk traditionally avoided but becoming more accepted Organisations tend to be strong bureaucracies Strict rules and policies Career stability important High emphasis now being placed on security (due to rise in corruption and gang warfare) Due to historical event Romanians want stability not uncertainty or ambiguity High levels of stress, low standards of public health Integration into the EU seen as bringing stability Organisations now keen to work in partnership outside Romania High uncertainty avoidance
Individualism/collectivism	Importance placed on group loyalty Harmonious relationships within groups important Strong emphasis on cohesiveness of family Group achievement more important than personal achievement High degree of collectivism

Masculinity/femininity	National culture moving towards masculine traits Being more competitive (in the business world) Achievement oriented Acquisition of money and wealth becoming more important More emphasis on buying houses, and owning home Quality of life and caring for others becoming increasingly more difficult to reconcile with the long working hours to achieve Improved life style and obtain luxury goods (cars, own home etc.) Growing importance placed on being 'successful' Moving toward masculinity

Source: Derived-The Romanian Border Police Managers 2006

This cultural analysis helped to make sense of Romanian national culture, as perceived by the managers. It is worth mentioning however that Hofstede's (1991) cultural factors may be interpreted differently by the RBP from our British Western perspective. As Russ-Eft and Hatcher (2003) point out, the notion of power distance may be construed as something quite different between cultures. For example, low power distance cultures hold that 'all should have equal rights' whereas high power distance cultures hold that 'power holders are entitled to privileges'. The ways in

which two types of cultures interpret this may be quite different and may lead to the elimination of this particular principle because of lack of agreement. Hofstede's intent was for the first dimension, *Power Distance*, to define 'the degree of inequality among people which the population of a country considers as normal'. Individuality/Collectivism relates to the extent to which members of a culture identify themselves as individuals, rather than as members of a group in the harsh and threatening environment of Eastern Europe. For Hofstede (1991), by contrast, latitude is correlated with individualism: 'countries with moderate and cold climates tend to show more individualist cultures; in such countries people's survival depends more on personal initiative, which supports individualist cultures'. The Masculinity/Femininity dimension is another source of ambiguity, 'm*asculinity* pertains to societies in which social gender roles are clearly distinct; *femininity* pertains to societies in which social gender roles overlap…'. Hofstede extrapolated from his original data on Yugoslavia that other countries from the communist bloc

would score low in Masculinity. Other writers have supported this notion by showing how cultural traits evident in the pre-modern era have continued into the transition era. Uncertainty avoidance and the extent that 'members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations' is ambiguous (Hofstede, 1991:113).

Hofstede's (1991) model is commonly used for societal analysis. Having looked at the Romanian culture, an organisation cultural analysis was conducted by the RBP using the same model. Their findings are recorded in Figure 4.7, and reveal that national culture is a major influence on RBP organisational culture. Moreover, it was difficult to avoid duplication, some of the observations, and subsequent comments made of the national culture were being repeated for RBP cultural analysis.

Figure 4.7 Organisational Cultural Analysis of RBP

Cultural dimensions	Observations and experience
High power distance	RBP officers have a strict attitude to dress, official uniforms and noticeable rank Hierarchical organisation Select for specific job and level Clear vision and strategy
High uncertainty avoidance	Leadership is task specific Specific rules and policies Limited use of performance related pay Started setting appraisal targets Need to clear vision and goals to aim for High degree of formality Emphasis on security
Collectivism	Group membership loyalty Group achievement more important than personal achievement Emphasis on teamwork and team competition Normative or moral employee relations Conscious 'we'

Masculinity/femininity	Work to live Relationships important Conciliation and compromise Acquisition of money and wealth becoming more important More emphasis on buying houses, and owning own home Increasingly becoming more competitive in the workplace Both masculine and feminine characteristics evident

Source: Derived from The Romanian Border Police Managers Cultural Analysis 2006

The findings do not present any surprises but rather more of an expectation in an organisation of this kind. It is to be expected that such an organisation would have high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance and a high degree of collectivism, but somewhat surprising that the organisation is moving towards masculinity. Several of the items listed relate to recent changes in people's behaviour, (such as being more competitive, and the acquisition of material wealth). Thus it invites the invocation of cultural scholars such as Schein and his work on corporate culture (1969), and Hofstede himself, who suggest that it takes a lot longer for an underlying culture to change than for a people's behaviour. According to Searle (1998) changes in behaviour might easily be misinterpreted as signs of culture change.

The findings of the cultural web below concur with the findings presented from Hofstede's analysis, but the purpose of the activity is to use this to better understand the culture for developing a knowledge building structure and creating new knowledge for the RBP.

Figure 4.8 RBP Cultural Web as Perceived by the Researcher and Managers

Routine:	Largely operates through informal networks based on trust ie things get done quicker if you are a respected member of the network. Great deal of camaraderie and cooperation between staff. A very positive working environment. RBP generally seen as happy in their work. Notorious reputation for corruption, internally and externally.

Rituals:	Ex-military organisation continuing to operate like the military, but want a police imagine. Military uniforms worn for tradition/state occasions, and for parades. Training schools well established and highly regarded in Romania. Formal training with exams to gain entry. Can continue to gain qualifications at a high level internally up to Masters level, in a variety of occupations including languages, forensics, medicine, electronics, music. It has a military band.
Stories:	Merged with the border guard in 1999 to form the modern Romanian Border Police. More recently have been working with NATO on Black Sea Manoeuvres. Are geopolitically/strategically the most important Border Police in Europe.
Symbols	Rank is the most important symbol, and linked to the power structure. Other important symbols such as the RBP logo (an eagle against the background of the Romanian flag). Places of office, titles, type of language or terminology commonly used which become a shorthand representation of the nature of the organisation. Working at the Headquarters in Bucharest seen more superior than other border Schools. Well established RBP magazine called 'Frontiera'.
Power structures	The Chief of Police is the most powerful individual in the organisation. Has decision making powers for appointment of senior figures in the Police. Nationally seen as an important role for the security of the nation. Particular groups in the organisation have significant power- Director of HR for example. Some areas of the organisation have strong management positions and seniority but in some areas power is lodged with other levels or functions. Constanta (Black Sea) school prestigious as the only blue border-lots of money pumped into Stock (ships, boats etc) in this area from NATO, to ensure Black Sea security.
Control systems	Well paid compared to other Romanian occupations, excellent pensions scheme and allowing for early retirement. Well respected in the community. Good medical care, and other extra services such as free hairdressers on site. Competition between cross border points in terms of detected crimes and smuggling. Threats of downsizing or closure for those cross border points not performing to standard.
Organisation structure	Typical military structure based on rank, hierarchical command and control. Traditional structure reflecting the power and delineates important relationships and activities within the Organisation. Every aspect of the organisation has a formal structure from the Headquarters to the Schools

	to the crossing points. No evidence of less formal structure anywhere in the organisation.
Paradigm	Border Police operating as a security service for Romania and the EU. It's mission and vision is to prevent illegal activities at the borders, and protect a wider Europe from illegal trafficking and terrorist activity from the East.

Source: Management and Organisational Behaviour – Mullins, L. (2005:744). Analysis carried out by RBP managers and researcher (2006)

4.9 Conclusion, Knowledge Building and Culture

Hendriks (2004) claims that it is generally acknowledged that organisation culture affect the way in which knowledge processes develop. Attempting to pin point exactly how culture affects knowledge building is difficult, but as Geppert and Clark affirm, the most important aspects to consider when working with organisations on knowledge building projects is to have a deep understanding of the cultural context in which the knowledge is developed. This chapter has presented the evidence to demonstrate that a full understanding of the RBP culture was gained before carrying out the research.

In summary this chapter has presented an understanding of Romanian culture, and more importantly the organisation culture of the RBP, and the psyche of the managers. It has been particularly useful in making an informed decision about the design of a knowledge building community and further informs an understanding of why and how the managers respond to particular stimuli, such as sharing knowledge and the use of journals, the kind of journal entries made, their perception of confidentially, their relationship with the researcher and each other. More pertinently an understanding of the RBP organisation cultural development gave meaning to how the managers view knowledge in relation to problem solving and how they interpret situations. Those particular aspects discovered that are essential to this research concern the way in which the managers made decisions on change. What was revealing was the managers purely relied on task orientation as a means of achieving change, and thus changes to organisation culture. Observations revealed that task orientation very much formulated the working life of an RBP employee. The same routine would be followed daily, almost robotically.

For an ex-military organisation this is probably the norm, but demonstrates the difficulty in trying to get the managers to think differently and do things differently. Four of the managers joined the RBP at time when more autonomy was introduced to the workplace in the mid-1990s when managers were beginning to make their own decisions and not have to go to their superior for decisions. Those managers demonstrated a more analytical way of thinking and opened new possibilities for the individual to engage in a knowledge building community for bringing about organisational change.

The differing and diverse composition of the group impacted on collective learning. Collective learning in some cases depended on relationship orientation, particularly if they were the early starters at the RBP (old guard) with an entrenched mind-set, rather than a late starter with a more analytical way of seeing the world and their environment.

The literature suggests that in a country in transition the readiness to change is connected to institutional environments (Alas and Vadi, 2006). It is known through the research carried out on change by the Ministry Agriculture Food and Fisheries (MAFF 1999), that the older members of an organisation do not support organisational goals as much as younger members. This is particularly true of the 'old guard' or 'laggards', (those working previously under communist regimes). Dobosz and Jankowicz, (2002) claim this finding is consistent with a study in Poland, where an English manager complained about difficulties with changing people who are older and more 'traditional'. Those people have some difficulties due to their previous experience. This would clearly have an impact on attitudes to organisation learning and knowledge building. There were eleven of the fourteen Romanian managers who had previously worked under the communist regime. They reported that work at this time was routine, regimented, and promoted stability. People were not expected to differentiate from others, and achieving success was the most important factor for the organisation. Writing on the transition of Estonian society Alas and Vadi (2006:155) claim that 'People who began their working life during the subsequent transition period differ from others according to the way they form their attitudes toward change and learning'. This view is shared with Taagepera

(1993:6), that 'the character of a totalitarian regime might explain this tendency. During the totalitarian regime in the Soviet Union it was not safe to speak openly or share personal thoughts'. This concurs with the experiences RBP managers had under communism, and for this reason as with the Estonian managers two levels of communication evolved, 'they learned to speak and use the official language and dogma of the communists in public as a form of lip service, and the second and genuine national level was used in families and with close friends' (Alas and Vadi 2006:155). This would inevitably be transferred to the organisation.

Noticeably, the most independent decision-makers in the group tended to have joined the RBP during the start of the uprisings at the end of the 1980s and at the start of the collapse of the Ceausescu regime in 1989, when the old institutional system was first challenged, overthrown and replaced with a different ruling more liberal Government. However, unusually for former communist EE countries, Romania voted in another communist government after Ceausescu. Political analysts were perplexed by this, but the new regime was more liberal thinking. In respect to the older manager, another cultural feature was their lack of confidence to speak up and forward ideas. After the collapse of the old regime in 1989 many employees found their profession obsolete or their professional skills not appropriate for a changing RBP. These were in the main bureaucrats, administrators, paper shuffling, and stamping documents for no real purpose. These were relocated in the organisation, but for those having done this role for a period of time their social and group identities broke down and it became difficult for them to retain a reference structure on which to base rational action (Weik, 2001). This manifested itself in nervousness to express ideas and thoughts. This section of the workforce suffered considerably and the RBP managers recalled how some needed psychological help but it was never offered.

Having identified some of the deep-routed cultural differences in the group, as described, a distinct approach to each individual was adopted when carrying out the research. There was an awareness of the issues raised, and identification of a different approach needed for each manager with different work experience. A prime example of accommodating difference can be given in the use of technology.

For the younger members of the group communicating with email, blogs, web pages, and facebook was the norm. It was difficult to communicate with the older members of the group through this medium, who did not respond to email but would accept a communiqué from a younger member of the group verbally. Under the old regime the older managers had not been used to receiving information formally, the information they received was through informal channels and through the trust of colleagues relaying the information. These are important aspects of group culture.

To summarise, this section of the chapter has presented those aspects of organisational culture influencing the mind-set of individuals in the group, depending on what point they joined the organisation, and how this impacts on the knowledge building process. The earlier part of the chapter attempts to explain and contextualise the reasons for the difference in thinking. This can be said of any organisation, but for a former communist EE organisation then the differences between old and new attitudes are vast, and have a real impact on the formation of attitudes toward change, and creating new knowledge for change.

What has emerged from this chapter is the belief that a real understanding of culture is needed (National and organisation) before research can be carried out in the workplace. In agreement with Geppert and Clarke several crucially important aspects need to be understood. Firstly, the extent and form in which an organisation values knowledge is culture-related. This also applies to the appreciation and contribution of individual aspects and forms of knowledge (Chia, 2003; De Long and Fahey, 2000). Secondly, culture influences processes such as knowledge building and knowledge sharing (Glisby and Holden, 2003). Culture must create the right conditions for knowledge development. This would include strategies such as a commitment to learn, which encourages openness and trust. Culture can overcome barriers to learning by facilitating mutual trust, motivation, and the willingness to see and solve problems. These are culturally determined conditions that affect whether knowledge building will be embraced in the RBP (Goh, 2002). Culture guides and influences the interaction between people; in a KBC

context this aspect is paramount. Finally culture guides the way in which knowledge is shared, managed and implemented.

CHAPTER FIVE

Methodology and Research Methods

5.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodological choice and considerations for addressing the research questions as outlined in chapter one. The rationale for adopting the research methods are presented in two phases. The first phase presents the research paradigm and explains the interpretive epistemological orientation and the overall methodological approach, drawing on the traditions of action inquiry and how it informed the study. This is followed by a description of how a knowledge building community was developed with the RBP managers and presents the research methods employed. The methodology is argued to flow from the research questions, and provide opportunities for worthwhile answers to these questions to be developed. Approaches towards data management and data analysis are outlined, and the chapter concludes with a discussion of ethical issues.

There is an abundance of literature on management research and its methodological approaches, and for any researcher the most difficult part of the process is grappling with the diverse methodological view points and trying to find a suitable 'fit' to match the researcher's intentions, and the nature of the research question. Burrell and Morgan in their influential 'Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis' (1979), stimulated much debate about the paradigms and politics of organisation research. This work prompted scholars to consider a multiplicity of frameworks and different paradigms or discourses on organisational research studies, including Van Maanen (1995) and more recently Clegg and Hardy (1999). The typology presented by Burrell and Morgan has been labelled, postmodern, and qualitative and post positivist, and tended to link the perspective of postmodernism with a qualitative methodology. Bradbury and Lichtenstein (2000:551) recognise the importance of developing a host of methodological choices which serve the need to 'represent lived organisational reality as it is, full of interdependence and interrelated richness'. This view is reinforced by Arbnor and Bjerke (1998), Kagan and Burton (2000), and Worrall (2005:246) supports this view with some caution, arguing that the 'variety of frameworks and stances available to

underpin management research make the selection of approaches very difficult for experienced and inexperienced researchers alike'.

Much of the research on cross-cultural knowledge transfer has taken a structural perspective, and tends to reflect and reinforce the economic transition model (Clark and Geppert 2002). Taking a structural perspective for research on knowledge creation for OCD would not address the concern to develop *new* structures for knowledge building. This research is not seeking to find answers on how the post-communist, command and control, hierarchical culture of the RBP has prohibited knowledge building capacity. It develops a system for knowledge building by understanding the complexity and ambiguity inherent in a post-communist organisation experiencing societal transformation. The emphasis is on developing a framework for knowledge building to facilitate sustainable change and development, emanating from the knowledge created by the managers. Working collaboratively with the managers as co-inquirers in Eastern Europe is an approach that is uncommon in the literature, and the aim has been to offer theoretical mechanisms to explore the diverse and contested nature of knowledge transfer and its creation in this context. Clarke and Geppert (2002:4) affirm that research carried out on the development of 'new explicit knowledge' are 'complex and social (not only technical)' and hence require involvement of both parties. Ethnographic research would appear to be an obvious approach which has been used to examine management learning as a social process (Ashwin 1999, Dunn 1999). Ethnographic studies require extensive fieldwork and observations of managers in the workplace, for this reason the approach was rejected, with a view that rather than observing managers it would be more effective to work with them as a team of co-inquirers.

The research was carried out over two periods: 2004 to the end of 2006, and 2008-09 (a one year gap whilst waiting for funding). Phase one began in 2004 working with RBP managers to create new knowledge to ultimately assist the organisation in preparing for EU-accession. The second phase came opportunistically in 2008 after the research undertaken with senior managers in phase one, and was funded through the Europeaid Project 123605/D/SER/RO. Through this funding it was

possible to triangulate the data collected in phase 1 and design a framework for its implementation.

The findings of phase one and two can be found in chapters six and seven. As stated the purpose of phase two was to triangulate the data and verify the findings of phase one, and assist the RBP to 'modernise' or develop its methods/strategy for organisational sustainability, based on those findings.

5.2 Research Paradigm and Methodology

This research has been carried out on the fundamental principle that knowledge is socially constructed. The theory of knowledge based on social constructivism, a sociological theory of knowledge that applies the general philosophical constructivism into social settings. The social setting in this context is the RBP group of managers wherein this group construct knowledge individually or collaboratively, creating a culture of shared artifacts with shared meanings. When individuals are absorbed within a culture of this sort, learning takes place all the time on how to be part of that culture on many levels. Its origins are largely attributed to Lev Vygotsky (1978:57) who believed that that 'cognitive functions originate in, and must therefore be explained as products of social interactions and that learning was not simply the assimilation and accommodation of new knowledge by learners; it was the process by which learners were integrated into a knowledge community'. This research is concerned with a particular approach to social constructivism based on scientific practice (that is knowledge production practice) that help to bring back in epistemological aspects of social constructivism based on a concern with epistemic justification. While abstract, idealised epistemic norms cannot ground effective critique of our practice and knowledge a concern with the epistemic norms of our knowledge production practices can.

Hence, social constructivism can be explained in the context of this research as social, as in a social group or community, constructivism as in building knowledge. A common premise on the ontological nature of social constructivism is that reality is unknowable and has external validity. Epistemologically the nature of a social constructivist's knowledge is social and experimental, meaning that the result of

group working is based on trial and error to discover knowledge. Predicting on how the group will work together and what outcomes will be achieved is not possible. The social group can be of various sizes, race or gender. Adopting this theory of knowledge is to have awareness that social constructivism is relative and subjective (Rae and Carswell 2000, Fayolle and Matlay 2010). It is relative because it depends upon the group to justify the knowledge, and one group's knowledge can be different from another group's knowledge. It is subjective because it depends upon what experiences an individual manager has had. Those experiences are brought to the group and shared within the group. The rational for the use of a journal was for managers to record workplace experiences of concern for sharing with the group in a later forum. The group would further discuss and either consciously or unconsciously decide about the viability or usefulness of that knowledge. The created knowledge is also adaptive, organized, and constrained. The manager's knowledge is adaptive only in a social way, meaning that the social group takes the knowledge and changes or adapts it in a way that pertains to the social group not necessarily to any other social group. Their knowledge is also organised by the social group, again as it pertains to that group and not necessarily to any other social group. Finally their knowledge is constrained. It is constrained by society and the social group. This is how a social group regulates their knowledge.

A qualitative research strategy has been used for the analysis of the data generated from a questionnaire, journals and interviews, with an inductive approach to the relationship between theory and research and an interpretive epistemological orientation (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991; Seale, 1998). This strategy has been adopted as managers perception of the process of critical reflection is of individual cognitive significance.

The key distinguishing factor of the collaborative co-inquiry approach is the two way relationship between the researcher and the practitioner, where the practitioner is involved and contributes to the research output. Most writers refer to this approach as the researcher working with 'co-researchers' (Whyte 1991, Eldon and Chisholm 1993, Eden and Huxham 1999; Heron and Reason 2001), but for the purpose of this research the collaborators are referred to as co-inquirers. This

position is justified on the basis of discussions with the RBP managers and their understanding of their involvement within the research. Action Inquiry is an approach that encourages continual investigation, development, and progressive problem solving, as well as inquisitiveness in ourselves and in those we work with (Reason and McArdle 2004). It is not a set of tools and techniques for OCD. Collaborative co-inquiry, an action inquiry approach was best suited to this research where evidence was collected individually by the managers and provided a basis for reflection and analysis. On this basis further cycles of Action Inquiry might emerge. Action Inquiry is particularly valuable for those seeking to improve their working practice. It will develop valuable workplace skills and practices. In this context means of achieving OCD were the focus, where the challenge and point of criticality was the knowledge created to enable this. This research also demonstrates how the creation of processes and structures for collaborative co-inquiry has enabled organisational development for the RBP, and how the process of Action Inquiry can enable organisation sustainability (Reason and McArdle 2004).

With the many strands of action research it is important to understand the differences and explain why collaborative co-inquiry was the appropriate methodology for this research. Kurt Lewin is generally considered the founder of action research (O'Brien 1998). Lewin was a German social and experimental psychologist, and one of the founders of the Gestalt school, he was concerned with social problems, and focused on participative group processes for addressing conflict, crises, and change, generally within organisations (O'Brien 1998, Eden and Huxham 1999). Originally Lewin coined the term 'action research' in 1946 characterising it as 'comparative research on the conditions and effects of various forms of social action and research leading to social action', using a process of 'a spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of the action' (O'Brien 1998). In collaborative/ co-operative inquiry all those involved in the research contribute to the thinking and decision-making and generate ideas, design and management of the project. Conclusions are then drawn from the experience. Since then researchers have developed ideas on participatory action research further, and it has been used to carry out research across a range of academic disciplines. Action inquiry is a superordinate term that

encompasses any kind of inquiry into action in a field of organisational practice (Tripp, 1995). Strategic action is a crucial defining characteristic of all action inquiry. Strategic action is action which is based upon an understanding achieved through the rational analysis of deliberately sought information. The idea of deliberately seeking and analysing information is essential, though just how that is done varies in different forms of action inquiry.

Ellis and Kiely (2000) make reference to four distinctive strategies or approaches to action inquiry citing action research, participatory action research, action learning, and action science as the four main components. They forward an articulation of the perceived world view, and explain the purpose, theoretical domain and philosophy of the four main strands of action inquiry. What exactly constitutes 'action inquiry' is heavily debated in the literature and in some cases contested (Tripp, 1995; Eden and Huxham, 1996; Reason, 2004), but there is a consensus that one central theme is prevalent; a reoccurring action reflection cycle.

At the core of all action inquiry strategies is a re-occurring action reflection cycle (plan, act, describe, review), for the purpose of creating new or improved knowledge, and is viewed as an interventionist approach to change, 'that enables individuals, groups, and organisations to use reflection on action in a problematic situation as a basis for the creation of new actions and knowledge' (Ellis and Kiely 2000). The seminal work of Argyris and Schon (1974) emphasised the need for developing 'a reflective approach' to practice for professional development and improved knowledge. They originally designed the adaptive or single loop model of organisational learning, and later Argyris (1999) developed the generative, double loop learning model (Nutley, Walter and Hue, 2006). Single loop learning implies a simple or incremental change where actions alter but values remain the same, whilst double loop or transformational learning is the result of critical reflective practices and may result in changes to value.

Collaborative co-inquiry (Heron 1971) is also known as 'participatory research'. This research method has been used with the RBP for generating and gathering data

using journals, and is particularly used with a group of people with expertise and experiences relating to a particular topic or issue (the RBP managers on sustainable OCD). In this way the research and the results themselves are useful in providing information about the approach and topic/issue. Furthermore this approach has ensured that that the research draws on a wide range of knowledge, which involves experts with experience, that is, there is appreciation of the RBP managers experience and the real life problems in the RBP. Facilitating this process required collaboration with the managers, thus a co-operative relationship developed so both researcher and RBP were 'drawing conclusions from the inquiry' (Heron 1971). The co-inquiry approach can be 'transformational'. This may comprise internal transformations of the individuals and/or groups involved, and/or external transformation of the broader community. The co-inquiry approach can be used as a way of developing empowerment amongst participants (as a group or individuals). It can change relationships by challenging and reconfiguring participants' perceptions of themselves and others. It can help people gain an appreciation of their own knowledge, which can lead to greater self esteem. Using co-inquiry has helped the RBP community achieve positive outcomes for those involved and for the organisation.

The RBP managers felt more comfortable with the term of 'co- inquirers'. It is a matter of semantics as to what label is used, but for clarity, and as a starting point, it is crucial for all involved to have a common understanding of the words used to describe the process. Action research implies a more cyclically structured and formulated approach to the research process, whereas this research was sometimes less structured, less planned, and more opportunistic and spontaneous, embedded (for some of the time) as it was within a larger EU project. An action inquiry approach challenges the assumption that knowledge and 'expertise' lies with the researcher, and that they hold the power to dictate the proceedings. The concern is more with participants working together, having equal status, and where confidentiality and privacy are respected. The binary of expert knowledge and local knowledge is erased.

This research has relied heavily upon knowledge generated by the RBP managers, using critically reflective methods. The researcher's part was to enable this throughout the research process, developing a reflexive approach where the inquirer does not stand outside like a spectator: 's/he is in it and transactional with it', and through this interconnectedness knowledge is generated. The process of reflective practice is essential to generate and create knowledge in the knowledge building arena and a detailed explanation of the nature of this process has been presented in this chapter. Entering into any kind of inquiry with other people is necessarily a complex and sensitive undertaking, and it is neither possible nor desirable to specify exactly what will need to be done to capture what is important in these complex professional-life situations. The actual focus of the study developed during the period of research has always centred on issues of knowledge creation for organisational change and development, in terms of professional development as educators and developers, and inevitably, changes through collaboration. In this sense the RBP researcher relationship can be defined as a 'collective learning system, a system of actions, actors, symbols and processes that enables an organisation to transform information into valued knowledge which in turn increases its long run adaptive capacity' (Kyriakidou and Özbilgin 2006:61). Hence, this research is understood as a means by which people can engage together to explore some significant aspects of their lives, their professional activities and responsibilities, not just to understand it better, but to improve their actions within it, so as to meet their purposes more fully in relation to the things that matter in life. This is in line with the view of Stroh (2000) on the need for a methodological approach that could go some way towards remedying the neglect of an exploration of salience.

This collaborative co-inquiry approach is based on 'second person' research (Reason and McArdle 2004), where face-to-face (with fourteen managers) the researcher inquires into issues of mutual concern. It is an emergent and generative process for organisational development. Initiating collaborative co-inquiry is a 'delicate process' (McArdle, 2002, Mead 2002), and due care is taken during the early stages. To enable the participants to fully engage in the research process an understanding of critical reflection and the implications of this was necessary, in terms of levels of

reflection and how to capture data generated from the reflective process. The methods of collecting data through critical reflective methods using journals are explained in the following sections. The forum for enabling this to happen is also discussed in section 5.3.

This research started in July 2004 and finished November 2006, and consisted of ten visits to Romania for the purpose of working collaboratively with the managers. The visits are detailed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Programme of Meetings with the RBP Managers

Session	Date	Transnational Social Space	Attendance
1	July 2004	UWBS Priorslee Hall, England	**14**
2	October 2004	RBP Training School, Bucharest,ROM	**14**
3	February 2005	RBP Training School, Iasi, ROM	**12**
4	May 2005	GIBP*, Bucharest ROM	**13**
5	August 2005	GIBP*, Bucharest, ROM	**14**
6	November 2005	RBP Training School, Bucharest, ROM	**13**
7	January 2006	RBP Training School, Bucharest, ROM	**13**
8	March 2006	RBP Training School, Bucharest, ROM	**12**
9	August 2006	Tulip Hotel, Bucharest, ROM	**12**
10	**November 2006**	**GIBP*, Bucharest, ROM**	**9**

* General Inspectorate of the Border Police.

Source: Author derived 2007

5.3 The Start of the Research Process: Developing a Knowledge Building Community

A discussion of the theory of communities of practice and in particular knowledge building communities can be found in the chapter two. However, before the research began it was critical to negotiate and discuss the suitability of the research methods/processes with the RBP. An important issue around ownership and negotiation concerns the idea of informed consent. When other people are invited to collaborate on committed research there is an ethical responsibility to

acquaint them with the potential issues that their involvement might entail. In the production of knowledge with 'human subjects' the ethical concern lies with the manner by which people are recruited into the research and treated during their involvement. The concern is that the research does not harm the people involved, whilst it enables the generation of data. The adage 'do no harm' is hardly enough of a safeguard for relationships within a research project, rather the emphasis must be on how to collaborate, develop collegiality, and how to treat each other respectfully as fellow human beings. This kind of rhetoric reads well, but is hard to achieve, it requires constant thoughtfulness.

> *This assumes in us a capacity for foresight which requires a reliable crystal ball. As a critical project takes a collaborative approach with a specified intent of either redress, improvement of practice or change of policy, then the outcome is never predictable. The outcome will be redefined as the emergent issues are addressed. If we are unsure of where our research activities will take us how can we provide informed consent to those we travel the research journey with?* (Street 1998: 150)

The RBP managers were involved on the basis of informed consent. However, the fact that the research framework needed to provide an 'emergent space' for the spontaneity and creativity of inquiry, did prove problematic. There were two aspects to this. One, in representing the nature of a collaborative research during the invitation/preparatory phase there was awareness that it could evoke anxiety with its lack of structure and uncertainty, and with its unpredictability regarding specifically desired outcomes. There was a particular concern that even when conscientiously following the ethical procedures they were consenting to be part of something from outside their own frames of reference. But, they accepted the explanations in good faith, presented no outward signs of anxiety or concern, and to all appearances there was no coercion. They showed such interest and commitment over the years of collaboration. They were not forced into the research by anyone else, it did not give them a quick fix to an existing problem, status, privilege, or control of the research results in terms of publications. To put it

bluntly: so what were they getting out of it? Later on in the research process, it could be suggested that the command and control mentality meant they felt they had lost the 'right to withdraw'. This right is, of course, central to the understanding that the persons participating in collaborative research are volunteers, and as such free agents able to withdraw themselves or their data at anytime. The right of withdrawal may not create too many problems in studies with a large sample size but in this particular research project the loss of any participants, from fourteen is inevitably problematic. However, such an observation would belie their generous commitment to the research.

The group consisted of the following fourteen managers. They have been anonymised for confidential reasons (as requested by the RBP) and are referred to in the finding chapters by the numbers given below.

1. GIBP Bucharest, Director of Human Resource Development
2. Deputy Director for training at Orsova School
3. Deputy Director for training at Iasi School
4. Deputy Director for training at Oradea School
5. Head of training Department at Constanta School
6. Head of training Department at Oradea School
7. Professor, Giurgiu School
8. Director of Orsova School
9. Head of the Training Department at Timisoara School
10. Head of Human Resources, GIPB, Bucharest
11. GIBP Bucharest, PHARE PIU office, Communications
12. Head of PHARE PIU office
13. Head of HR, Constanta
14. Professor, Constanta School

In forming the research building community the process was deliberately 'structured'. If it had been completely open and flexible the forming group would have had nothing to get its teeth into at this early tentative stage. Unstructured groups may 'flounder around in ambiguity and confusion' (Reason, 1988: 25).

However, in trying to make a space for spontaneity and creativity of the knowledge building process, a framework that supported open exploration rather than being determined by a predetermined plan of action emerged.

Some considerable time was spent in explaining the nature of the research process to the group and trying to build relations, and although none of them either at the time or subsequently stated that they felt unclear about objectives and direction, the way time is spent on building group relations is essential, in particular time spent nurturing a sense of belonging and building open communication. Group building can be achieved in many ways, but should take place in a manner which is appropriate to the culture. The group were considered to be cohesive at the start of the research as the group process of 'forming, storming, norming and performing' (Tuckman 1965) had already taken place, not only on their earlier programme of study, but also in the workplace, and was an ongoing process for the group as they worked together in the same organisation. It should be said that at the start a model of strong and active initiation/facilitation was not wanted, such as using group-building activities to get the group together (this had already been done in the classroom when the managers were on their programme of study, and this was not a teaching situation), identifying specific inquiry agendas, feeding back, and summarising. While they can be crucial in terms of teaching the group the process of collaborative inquiry is through doing, and thus the danger is twofold: the initiator completely takes over the inquiry process, and/or the activities may deskill and insult group members, inhibiting the development of the group.

In the early stage of the collaboration it was necessary to guide and direct the process by asking a range of questions. The group may have felt more like respondents than participants in a knowledge building community, being frequently placed in a reactive position. During the early stage of the research project it had not been managed to establish the beginnings of an effective collaborative culture based on something other than what they may have perceived to be dominant norms. An attempt was made to abdicate authority very early on in the research process, to create space for the development of peer authority. The aim was to exercise no more power than was needed to establish the research – allowing

power to devolve to participants as quickly as possible. Two important ideas were acted upon. One, the pragmatic notion that moving forward by engagement was a worthwhile task with attention to individual and group needs, and would lead to a creative group process. Two, that it was important to recognise and accept emergent chaos, and not try to tidy it up too prematurely.

While the facilitation was planned and active in the sense of working towards abdicating authority, there was an acknowledgement of the place of providence in this work – things seem to fall into place at the right time. Like chaos, fate or luck cannot be planned. The attitude needed seems to be one of control and surrender, bringing direction to the work while always anticipating the unplanned opportunities that arise and being willing to go with them. The balance between initiation/facilitation, control/surrender, negotiation/nurture of ownership is crucial. The notion of research/inquiry as creating a space for something to happen was recognised. The research project points to the potentially creative paradox in the tension between structure and lack of structure (Reason, 1988:195).

That 'space for something to happen' soon became what is referred to as the 'transnational social space' (Clark and Geppart 2002) where the knowledge building community came together. Access to Eastern European organisations by Western researchers before the collapse of Communism was nigh on impossible. In the late 1980s early 1990s, under the influence of change in the USSR, a team from the Harvard Business School gained access to a Soviet factory to conduct research on management practices (Lawrence and Vlachoutsicos 1999). Their opportunity was unprecedented. No such opportunities were available for research in Romania which remained largely a closed society. Today it is commonplace for Western 'experts' in business and management to spend lengthy periods and have extensive access to information. However, it remains the case that sustained access to former Soviet bloc police organisations is unusual. The uniqueness of this research is partly that it is based on such access to a post-communist military command and control organisation. Indeed in some respects the level of this access has been unprecedented, and the researcher acknowledges the privilege in being able to do this. However, much time was taken in convincing the senior management team in

the RBP that the research was worthy of access. An organisation such as the RBP is constantly mindful of the secretive and sensitive nature of their operation, and is also conscious of the threat of espionage and sabotage. In order to dispel any doubts or fears time had to be taken in building up trust and confidentiality. The researcher had been working with the organisation for one year before a proposal of the research was presented. This gave the organisation an opportunity to assess 'worthiness' in terms of reliability, loyalty, confidentiality and trust. It was also necessary to convince the senior team that they would not suffer from 'consultant fatigue' (Tacis 1997), and that they would be given a schedule outlining the times access would be suitable for negotiation. Subsequently after approval of the proposed research, a presentation was made to the Chief of Police, and the Head of Personnel providing more detail.

At the start of the research process there was a clear reluctance of the managers to challenge anything presented to them, and interaction was minimal and remained tame in spite of repeated efforts to introduce more interactive forms of discussion. The impression gained at this stage was that the post-command managers preferred a formal presentation method and found it difficult to break out of their traditional formal meeting mindset. The third meeting in Romania saw a change in the attitudes and behaviours. They became more involved in debate displaying a reflective and critical disposition. It was in this latter stage of the meetings that the potential for developing new concepts of knowledge creation/generation was realised, and the opportunity to develop a new conceptualisation of knowledge transfer in a transitional society emerged. The most profound change was the sudden acceptance of the managers to generate solutions to real life organisational problems and talk about them freely. The reasons for this sudden change remain unclear. The Romanian managers could not articulate why they had become more confident and forthcoming in discussion, and were unable to account for the change. There are possibly two interrelated reasons for this. First, the trust established in the classroom during the previous study blocks was now enabling openness and honesty. Second, being located in the familiar surroundings of their own organisation and country may have given them that extra confidence.

Whatever the underlying reasons were, it soon became clear that this shared experience was being used to develop new knowledge which shaped the concepts, ideas and models for Romanian managers to take back to the workplace. The managers were no longer claiming a virtual monopoly of functional knowledge. The newly created knowledge was appropriate to their needs and offered a more sustainable solution to organisational development in a posts-socialist ex-military context, simultaneously this knowledge was used to inform research and teaching at the Business School. Whilst this form of collaborative organisationally based inquiry emphasises the need to understand practitioners own perspectives on professional life and curriculum innovation, it also allows for the possibility of practitioners challenging the conditions and constraints that sustain their professional culture.

Having formulated a research framework for negotiation, it was ideologically sometimes uncomfortable to use power and influence to sell an idea which is based on the principles of participation, power-sharing, and peer relations. Once the research started and the meeting with the group began abdicating authority came very early on, and was facilitated to create space for the development of peer authority. The aim was to exercise no more power than was needed to establish the research – allowing power to devolve to participants as quickly as possible. This attempt to be a collaborator as an outsider to the setting was a new experience and can stretch the faith in participatory and committed research design. The RBP managers were always very enthusiastic about the possibilities of a 'collaborative project'. As more was revealed of the organisation and the individuals trust developed and the nature of the relationship changed. A degree of trust had already been established during the training programme. A 'degree' of trust as it was difficult to discern whether full trust had been established, but there was a noticeable shift in the power dynamics once the research started and how the managers reshaped themselves over time.

5.4 Research Methods for Data Collection

There were three main methods used for collecting data in phase one:

A *questionnaire* to establish the extent to which critical reflective method were used in the completing of the journal, the use of *journals* to capture significant events in the workplace creating a body of new knowledge for the RBP, and a final *interview* at the end of the phase one.

NVivo was used for the data analysis of all three methods and is explained in section 5.5.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was designed to elicit views and considered the managers' understanding of, and engagement in the process of co inquiry using critical reflective practice (see appendix one). Managers were requested to complete the questionnaire during the fifth visit (see Table 5.1), a year after the research process had started. All fourteen managers completed and handed it back during the visit. It was made very clear that the questionnaires were confidential, and would be taken back to the UK and kept in a secure place. The purpose of the questionnaire was twofold: to understand whether the use of journals and critical reflective practice were working, and were the right choice of methods for this research (and the managers), and second to ascertain whether they had truly engaged in the process, and if so at what level of reflection. The internal validity and reliability of the data collected and the response rate achieved will depend, to a large extent, on the design and structure of the questionnaire. Internal validity refers to the ability of the questionnaire to measure what is intended to be measured (Saunders et al. 2009:366), however, for a questionnaire to be valid it must be reliable. According to Bryman and Bell (2006:163), reliability refers to the consistency measure of a concept. They suggest that stability; internal reliability and inter-observer consistency are three prominent factors that are required to be involved when considering whether a measure is reliable. The question design should therefore be determined by the data that is required to be collected. According to Bourque and Clarke (1994 in Saunders et al. 2009:368), 'when designing individual questions researchers do one of two things: adopt questions used in other questionnaires, or develop their own questions'.

The questions were developed by the researcher and were designed to consider the views of the RBP managers during the process of critical reflection, in conjunction with the use of journals in the workplace. There were eleven questions asked and an opportunity at the end of the questionnaire to add any other comments. The questionnaire was confined to two sides of A4. The questions were a combination of closed and open ended to elicit as much information as possible and started by asking about their understanding of critical reflection. This was important in establishing how meaningful the journal entries were. If they fully understood the significance then journal records were likely to be more reflective, insightful, probing, inquisitive and questioning about the organisation, as opposed to superficial and vacuous. The frequency of journal use was asked as a gauge of how easy or difficult they found the process. Following on from this it was important to establish if they thought the process valuable and how they saw it contributing to the creation of new knowledge. There was a deliberate attempt to steer away from more than one question on knowledge creation as this was more about the process of critical reflection and journal keeping and the knowledge creation questions would come in the interviews at the end of the research process. Other questions were centred on the transferability of critically reflective practice into everyday working situations, and whether they thought it would be something they would continue to use. The role of the organisation in critical reflective practice and journal keeping were also examined, and whether they thought it would help with OCD, and their own professional development.

Some spend a longer time in completing the questionnaire than others. Some took an hour whereas one respondent took three. The questionnaires were kept securely until the analysis was done. The findings from the questionnaire can be found in chapter six.

The Use of Journals

The Romanian Border Police form part of a European-wide security force, working with NATO on EU strategy. It is therefore important to appreciate the confidential nature of this research and emphasise the sensitivity in collecting data on a border police organisation. The agreement with the Chestor-general de poliție (Chief of

Police) was not to divulge information of a sensitive nature (anything seen to be breaching EU security). Therefore the data collected was strictly confined to the internal processes of the RBP, and not concerned with the wider issues relating to the NATO or Schengen policy. The research agreement was for the journals to be returned to the RBP after analysis and this request was honoured. The request to use this form of research was made following a strict code of ethics as for any Police Force. A formal letter of request was sent to the Chief of Police. When accepted a formal agreement was signed by both researched and the RBP that there would be no breach of confidentiality and all findings would be seen when written up. All completed questionnaires, journals and interview data would be kept securely until returned back to the RBP at the end of the research process. This request was honoured.

Through the use of critical reflective methods insightful invents were captured and recorded in an individual journal. For the purpose of this research the cyclical nature of collaborative co-inquiry could not always be realised because of the time lapse between each visit (Reason and McArdle 2004). A review of previous journal entries was followed up at each visit, but critical incidents were not followed through the action cycle as suggested with action research methods. With the many journal entries it would have been impossible to act on every recording. A hybrid method was adopted whereby managers would record significant critical events and these would be reported on and discussed in the collaborative meetings, but not necessarily acted upon. There was an acknowledgment that action points might inhibit the process of recording spontaneous 'other' events in the workplace, or might dominate the managers thoughts. The actions arising from the meetings were recorded but were deemed to be less important than the reflective practice and the journal recordings.

Keeping a reflective journal is a common practice in qualitative research, particularly reflexive research. Methodologically is it accepted practice from a constructivist perspective (MacNaughton 2001, Denzin 2006). Furthermore the use of journals for recording and capturing ideas is ideal when research is carried out at a distance. Journal records were kept by the managers of any significant event in

the workplace, and in particular to catalogue any epiphany moments where change was a crucial concern for the organisation. An agreement was reached at the start that journal use was to generate new ideas, track thinking, identify inspiration, develop ideas, develop concepts, explore potential outcomes and evaluate how successful they had been. In addition the managers were free to record anything they thought significant.

As stated earlier the data collected was strictly confined to the internal processes of the RBP, and not concerned with the wider issues relating to NATO or Schengen policy. At each visit the managers were asked to discuss their journals in an open forum. It had already been established that the forum for collaborative working was confidential and safe, and managers were keen to share their findings and discuss in an open and frank environment. In practice, knowledge building was operationalised and new knowledge created. A typical example of the pattern was that: The RBP managers created and discussed an idea about a problem that had been recorded in their Journal as something significant and worthy of discussion and for contemplation and reflection by colleagues. The idea, issue or problem was entered into the knowledge forum for discussion with the other managers. The process continued recursively after each visit with a flow of new or improved ideas. The recursive nature of the knowledge building process should be emphasised here, as there is no definite end to the process, but always something more to be discovered and newer understandings to be created in a continuous process of innovation. The concept that every idea can be improved is central to the knowledge building process. Through a process of either modifying the artefact (object,) or by building onto the artefact, new knowledge or understandings are created, becoming new objects for contemplation and reflection

Journals were examined, using Hatton and Smith's (1995) typology of three forms of reflective writing, to gain an insight into the depth of critical reflection achieved at the end of the process. The levels achieved were illustrated in a table presented in chapter six. The following section describes how critical reflection was introduced and incorporated as integral to the journal recording process.

Attempting to define critical reflection is difficult (Mackintosh 1998). The literature devotes its attention to the topic of reflection, and to the development of reflective practitioners. However, reflective practices and critical reflection are quite different. Cranton (1996) claims that critical reflection requires moving beyond new knowledge and understanding into the realms of questioning existing assumptions, values and perspectives. Reynolds (1998) claims this goes beyond the individual requiring a focus on the social and political context paying particular attention to inherent power relationships. Brookfield (1995) claims that there are four main elements central to critical reflection:

1. Assumption analysis.
2. Contextual awareness.
3. Imaginative speculation.
4. Reflective scepticm.

Confusion over a common definition has meant that the term 'reflection' and 'critical reflection' have been used interchangeably in the literature (Wellington 1996). There is considerable pressure on practising professionals in a variety of disciplines such as teaching, nursing and social care to engage in the process of continuous professional development in order to acquire innovative and distinctive skills and competence. Personal and professional development throughout life in the UK is strongly promoted and encouraged by the Government, educational institutions and professional bodies, each with their own particular agenda. The two key stakeholders to the process, the employers and employees are bound by the nature of the changing psychological contract (Garfield 1992; Walton 1999) imposing an obligation on employees to not only constantly improve organisational practice and deliver added value but also to identify their own learning opportunities and take advantage of self-managed and often unplanned learning leading to career enhancement and continued employability (Covey 1992; Rousseau 1995; Watson and Harris 1999). Schon (1983) highlighted the crisis in the professions necessitating some demonstrable way of indicating mastery of professional practice in a complex changing world where the body of technical knowledge would no longer suffice, as a modus operandi for solving problems. Schein (1993) drawing on the work of Kolb (1984), Gibbs (1988) and others, identify a gap between professional knowledge and the demands of the real world of

practice where reflection is seen as a key part of the learning process in developing understanding and increasing competence (Schon 83; Willis 1999). Some writers contend that learning from experience is not possible without reflection (Burnard 1991). Reflection itself however is not enough to achieve transformational learning in either individuals or organisations. Improvement of practice implicit in continuous professional development philosophy underpins most current organisational and professional practice. Corley and Eades (2004) following the approach of Reynolds (1998) argue for the necessity of taking a wider view of reflection encompassing the questioning of assumptions; the social rather than individual focus; mindful of power relations; and concerned with emancipation. In addition the intentional and active nature of critical reflection is essential if transference to the workplace is to be achieved

> *Reflective learning is an intentional process, where social context and experience are acknowledged, in which learners as active individuals, wholly present, are engaging with others, and open to challenge, and the outcome involves transformation as well as improvement for both individuals and their organisation... (Brockbank, McGill and Beech 2002:6)*

Therefore it is expected that critically reflective practitioners are able to identify some mechanisms by which this takes place in their organisations. Achieving higher stages of development for both stakeholders ought to be characterised by an awareness of and ability to work with uncertainty and challenge taken for granted assumptions, however painful this might be. This lack of consistent definition of reflection matters, if the notion of reflective practice is to be important and integrated into professional life. In respect to the this research, the need to understand what it is the research collaborators are attempting to achieve is vital (Morrison, 1996), and they must feel convinced that this is a worthwhile meaningful process enabling the achievement of important outcomes for the organisation.

In this research a number of methods have been used to achieve critical reflection: setting up a knowledge building community, the use of journals, group discussion,

internal dialogue, and a semi-structured interview. Journals are widely supported in the literature as valuable tools of reflection which enhance learning by enabling individuals to comprehensively and systematically clarify ideas and experiences, identify themes and patterns and make sense of feelings (Moon, 1999; Holly and McLoughlin, 1989; Boud and Walker, 1998; Park, 2003; McManus, 2001; Clifford, 2002).

The focus of the RBP journals was to promote their insights on organisational issues for the purpose of generating data. The aim of which was to generate new knowledge through dialogue and reflection whilst considering an actual work-based problem within a challenging social context of peer group interaction. The literature asserts that this has a significant potential leading to critically reflective learning (Revan, 1982, McGill and Beatty, 2001; Gregory, 1994; Brockbank and McGill, 2002). This research did not advocate an action learning set approach but the meetings did give an opportunity for each manager to speak and ask questions. In this context the forum enabling critical reflection was within a transnational social space called a knowledge building community where meetings took place over a period of time, where conscious critical reflection was fostered. The researcher was strongly of the opinion, that a constructive opportunity to increase the managers understanding of self and practice through a collaborative multi-perspective public arena provides a number of advantages for the participants (Boud and Walker, 1998; Corley and Eades, 2004). The socially constructed context created has a powerful influence over the kinds of reflection it is possible to foster and the significance it will have for the participants. It is recognised however that it would not be possible to be an objective onlooker, and whilst being a strong advocate of these interventions and a critical reflector there is a realisation that some managers will have perceptual blocks and simply resort to strategic rule following, and will copy others in order to satisfy the requirements of the research.

It is more likely that critical reflective practice will be transferred into the workplace if the managers have been able to develop a confidence in using the technique whilst in the supportive environment of the research process. The issue of quality of reflective practice would seem to be an important one but merits only scant

attention in the literature. Hartog (2002) stressed the importance of reflection going beyond Kolb by the inclusion of internal inquiry, modification of thinking, and ability to act with greater integrity. For the purpose of this research Hatton and Smith's (1995) typology draws on Bateson's taxonomy (1973) will be used as a framework for analysis. It identifies three forms of reflection:

- Descriptive reflection of events (Level 1)
- Dialogic reflection with some stepping back from events (Level 2)
- Critical reflection of exploring reasons for the event in a broader ethical, moral and historical context (Level 3)

It is perhaps reasonable to assume that if all managers have achieved the third level of critical reflection, as explained above, they are more likely to perceive the benefits of the process both to themselves and their organisations and are therefore more likely to continue once the research has ceased. The barriers of transferring critical reflection to the workplace are not well developed in the literature. There is evidence relating to the completion of journals that indicate that lack of interest and disengagement occurs where there has only been a surface approach (Entwhistle, 1981). Easterby Smith (1990) identifies the lack of time for reflection as a major hindrance to learning in organisations whilst others stress the importance of guidance and a supportive organisational climate (Barclay, 1997; Clifford, 2002).

This section has sought to address those questions raised about the use of critical reflective practice through using journals with the RBP. As the literature suggests unless co-inquirers are engaging in critical reflection then meaningful data is not produced. Furthermore, the process has no value to the individuals or the organisation, as thoughts, views and ideas are not connected, superficial, and do not take into account the 'bigger picture' of the organisation

Semi structured interviews

At the end of the two year collaborative period the fourteen RBP managers were interviewed using semi structured methods. The interviews are considered to be pivotal to the research carried out as they draw together the collaborative findings

and give closure to phase one. Interviews were selected as a primary research method due to the suitability in eliciting in-depth views on the focused subject. The interviews were seen as a final opportunity to discuss the journals and talk about the research journey. One of the main reasons why interviews were considered and were central to this research is that interview data presents a distinctly different type of data from written accounts in the journals. That it is more spontaneous, and that the dialogue that occurs during the interview may help things to surface that do not appear in their written journal accounts. Wellington (2000) notes some of the unique attributes of interviewing as a research method which is able to probe individuals:

> *'Interviews can reach the parts which other methods cannot reach... Interviewing allows a researcher to investigate and prompt things that we cannot observe. We can probe interviewees' thoughts, values and perception, views, feelings and perspective'.*
> (Wellington 2000:71)

It was particularly important to position the interviews at the appropriate time within the research process. This took place at the end of the two year co inquiry phase in August 2006, and five months before Romania achieved EU accession. Interviews took place at the RBP headquarters, Bucharest, in 2006. Fortunately the interviews were possible in a single visit over a four day period. Interviews were conducted in a private and quiet office so as to avoid interruptions (Bell and Opie 2002, Patton 2002).

The interview schedule was the same for each participant. There was a basic structure of questions allowing as a prompt. The interview questions can be found in appendix two. The interview questions were designed as open-ended. If more information was required from the respondent a 'probe' was added. The major advantage of the interview is the potential for revealing attitudes, feelings and motives hidden in written responses (Bell and Opie 2002). Semi-structured interviews consist of a prepared but 'sufficiently open ended' schedule to allow for re-ordering of questions, digressions, expansions, and further probing (Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 182). In this type of data collection method, the interviewer 'can seek both

clarification and elaboration on the answers given'. The interviews had a second purpose of clarifying statements made in journals. One of the most important aspects of the interview approach is conveying the attitude that the participant's views are valuable and useful.

Capturing the feeling, attitudes and motives of the managers were crucial in securing meaningful data, elicited through conversations. As the interviews were conducted on a one to one basis it was possible to turn the interviews into a conversation, giving the researcher the opportunity to explore an individual's opinion in depth. All interviewees appeared comfortable with the interviews. Trust had already been established as the researcher had been involved with the company for eighteen months at this stage. A semi-structured approach was adopted, giving participants the opportunity to guide the research within an interview that lasted between three and five hours, depending on the interviewees level of English and interest in taking part in the research process.

During the interview process immediate follow-up and clarification were possible, as on occasion there was ambiguity during the conversation. Interviews allowed the researcher to understand the meanings that everyday activities hold for people. However interviewing has limitations and weaknesses, involving personal interaction, and can be emotional for the interviewee where cooperation is essential. None of the interviewees were unwilling or appeared uncomfortable in sharing sensitive information that the interviewer hoped to explore. Questions were not asked that evoked long unnecessary narratives from participants because of a lack of expertise or familiarity with the local language or because of a lack of skill. The unstructured nature of the questions however allowed the interviewee to elaborate on points they felt important or of significance. The interviews required the researcher to have superb listening skills and be skilful at personal interaction, question framing, and gentle probing for elaboration (Patton 2002).

Data was generated from the interviews with an emerging inventory of issues generated from respondent statements. Interviews were tape-recorded. Participant consent was sought before proceeding with this method, with all participants

consenting to the taped interviews, after reassurances that none of the content would be divulged to the organisation. If recordings had not been possible then the researcher would have carried out note-taking, followed by memoing, and coding (Bryman, 2001:394) immediately after the interview. The process adopted for preparing the interview was as advocated by Stroh (2000 in Burton 2000:196). Without the interviews it would have not been possible to probe for a better understanding of what had been recorded in the journal.

One of the concerns was to ensure that the interview experience had been worthwhile for both researcher and participant, and the objectives for the interview had been met. The interview gave an opportunity to personally thank the individual manager for taking part in the research, and also helped to convey the message that in the future they would be able to use the journal in an everyday work situation as a qualitative diary, 'a simple, flexible and potentially powerful instrument that is at least worthy of serious consideration as a useful addition to their CPD.

The interview data was later transcribed. The transcriptions helped to get an overall sense of the data and to get 'immersed' in the data, a crucial first stage according to Wellington (1996:135). The raw data was imported into NVivo for subsequent coding and analysis, and is further explained in the next section.

5.5 Data Analysis using Nvivo

Interview data, questionnaire responses and Journal entries were analysed for key themes. This was done manually by the researcher and the data imported into NVivo for subsequent coding and analysis (beginning with version 7.0, later migrating to version 8.0). The purpose of using Nvivo was to group the common emergent themes, identify the connections and see how they knit together. Through the process of content analysis themes were identified. NVivo is an advanced qualitative computer package, enabling researchers to demonstrate their analysis better. It is labour intensive but offers a facility for particularly helpful in producing graphical representations and reports on research findings, and has been used for illustrating the findings graphically in the research. In the case of providing

evidence of 'created knowledge' or 'new knowledge' and its use, the researcher had to first identify common themes in phase one before moving onto phase two.

It is quite rare to find accounts of exactly how researchers analyse their data, and it is partly because of this missing information that qualitative research tradition has been open to criticisms of unreliable research practices. As Kirk and Miller (1986) suggest, validity in qualitative research 'is a question of whether the researcher sees what he or she thinks he or she sees' so that there is evidence in the data for the way in which data are interpreted. With the advent of advanced qualitative computer packages, such as Nudist and NVivo, researchers can now demonstrate their analysis better. Using Nvivo, key themes were analysed systematically through content analysis to reveal the significant findings. According to Stemler (2001) content analysis is defined as a systematic replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories, and enables 'researchers to sift through large volumes of data with relative ease in a systematic fashion. It can be a useful technique for allowing us to discover and describe the focus of individual, group, institutional, or social attention' (Weber, 1990).

Codes were given to reoccurring themes imported into NVivo. Hence, themes were chosen on the basis of the number of times they had been referred to in the interviews and journals. Kelle (1995) views the role of coding as noticing relevant phenomena and analysing those phenomena in order to find commonalities, differences and patterns. Additionally it can be used for arranging the data in hierarchical order. In this research context the interview data with the journal data would eventually constitute new knowledge, and would be used to link ideas and concepts which enable the researcher to go beyond the data (Coffey and Atkinson 1996).

The common themes identified from the data imported from journal records, questionnaires and interviews in phase one are referred to by the NVivio software as 'Tree nodes', and the number of references made to each tree node correlates to the number of references recorded. Themes with fewer references were recorded in NVivo but were sub-categories or 'Free nodes'. There were many of these but because they were referred to minimally they were deemed as less significant than

the main themes. 'References' on the Nvivo screen indicates the number of times the theme was referred to and the 'Sources' column show which manager.

The next stage was to identify the source of the key Themes. These were grouped into a key codes taken from reflective journal, from the interview, and the questionnaire on reflective practice, and were coded as follows in the key under figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Data Coding Key

Variables	Coding
Managers	***M (followed by a number to denote the manager)***
Quotes from questionnaires on reflective practice	***Q***
Interview data	***I***
Qualitative statements from journals	***J***
Knowledge Themes	***K (followed by the theme number)***

Source: Derived by Author (2008)

5.6 Ethics and Gender

In carrying out this research a strict code of ethics was adhered to. The research was conducted on the basis of Informed consent, and permission was first sought from the RBP Chief of Police and an agreement signed between the researcher and the organisation. The agreement stipulated that all research material would be handed back to the RBP, and that the research results would be presented to the organisation at the end.

After the fourteen managers had been selected a research agreement was reached with each individual participant that anonymity and confidentiality would be maintained throughout. No pressure was placed on individuals to participate, and individual autonomy of participants was respected. There was a conscious effort to avoid causing harm to individuals. This was mostly on pushing them too hard to complete journals and get more involved than they already were. Causing harm can be a problem in research and present challenges as Baxter *et al.* (2001) suggests. He claims that common causes of ethical challenge are conflicts of interest between the researcher and the researched. The researcher may be overenthusiastic about

their research idea, and be keen to collect in-depth high quality data from those most closely affected by whatever they are researching. However, there is a risk that the researcher may be tempted to consider unethical research practice in order to try to obtain and/or retain some of the data.

There were initial concerns about the research relationship between the researcher and the managers, especially in respect to the gender difference in the research process, and the culture of the research environment. This inevitably impacts on ethical considerations. The purpose of this section is to illustrate an awareness of the sensitivities when carrying out organisation research of this nature.

On embarking on this research questions were reflected on about the methodological and epistemological implications of assuming that gender can be understood as a fixed thing, which may or may not affect the conduct of the research. This view was adopted at an early stage of the research and now seems rather naïve, but it was soon realised that gender is not a fixed social category, but is lived differently in different contexts (Black 2002). Consideration ought to be taken on the issues that may arise as a female researcher carries out research in a male-dominated setting. Early literature on research methods assumes that the researcher is 'anyman', and personal characteristics such as gender, 'have no bearing on the development of trust in this setting' (Johnson and Duberley 2000). However, in recent years the literature has paid more attention to this aspect of research, with evidence emerging that indeed a researcher's status characteristics affect the development and maintenance of rapport in the research process (Black 2002, Yates 2003; Law 2004; Ruane 2005).

The position of woman researching into male-dominated environments, particularly the police are presented in the literature with conspicuous importance. Whilst the Romanian Border Police culture differs greatly from the British Police the same principles and pitfalls apply for a female researcher in a male-dominated environment. Woman researchers in this field (Laws 1990; Horn 2000; Marks 2004; Westmarland 2006) refer to the numerous problematic situations encountered that were specifically gender related. Laws (1990: 216) speaks of the 'painful process' in

having to ignore men's sexist views which would naturally be avoided in any other situation. Horn (2000) draws on a similar experience in her account of a female researcher in the police occupational culture. In her article 'Not One of the Boys' Horn recalls the clashes between her expectations and values as a female researcher, and how they were at odds with the expectations and values of the organisation. She describes the police occupational culture as the 'canteen culture' as referred to in other literature on police culture (Brewer 1991; Young 1991; Fielding 1994; Dicks and Metcalfe 2007). The representation of this culture is strongly associated with representations of masculinity and male dominance. Policewomen and female researchers alike have avoided or ignored confrontational situations. Horn refers to the strategies employed by females working in this arena to overcome the embarrassment such as 'defensive humour', to treat a sexist remark as a joke, or becoming 'one of the boys' and live out the masculine traits.

Indeed any outsider attempting to gain access to conduct research in the police force, irrespective of gender, might be labelled as a 'spy'. Hunt (1984) claims female researchers are more likely to be accused of this role because of their association with 'clean' management. As recorded in the researchers diary;

> *'I know I wasn't seen as a 'spy' nor did the RBP have any suspicions of my research whatsoever. I don't think they would have entertained my research for a second had I been seen as a threat. I did not have access to their secret world of illegal border crossing, smuggling and drug trafficking. I could only ever discuss the organisation strategy in relation to EU accession and change, and I would like to think that the research was of mutual benefit. Through the research I was helping them develop an appropriate long term strategy, and in return this gave me my research data. I was constantly aware of the seniority of some members of the group, and so not to step out of line. The presence of a General kept me focused at all times, and as much as I would have liked to discuss their secret world never did'. (2007)*

The research experience with the RBP was one of deference. The researcher was not subjected to sexist or rude comments made, neither was there a feeling of being uncomfortable or unwelcome. The researcher was never patronised during any aspect of the research. The experience was diametrically opposed to the experiences of those women researchers of the British police. There is no account for the differences in attitude between the police forces, other than to say that the inherent institutional sexism existing in the British police is an aspect of the culture that has built up over decades. The literature (Laws 1990; Maclaughlin 1992; Horn 1997; Brown 2005) suggests that traditionally the British public have a view that the 'Force' is rife with institutional sexism.

5.7 Phase Two

As already discussed at the start of this chapter phase one consisted of researching collaboratively with the senior managers selected by the RBP who attended the initial University Diploma in HRD. The objective was to establish the change and development needs of the organisation for modernisation as a precursor to EU accession. Journals, interviews and a questionnaire were used as methods of data collection. The second phase of the research was partially funded through the Europeaid Project 123605/D/SER/RO, and emerged from the findings of phase one which emphasised the crucial role of the training schools in facilitating the RBP's development for EU accession. Its purpose was to elicit the views of a sample of senior training school personnel about the key themes which emerged from phase one, as detailed in chapter five. Phase two required visits to all seven RBP training Schools (including the General Inspectorate in Bucharest). The methods used were questionnaires and interviews. An inventory of pedagogical strategies to identify current practice was developed later as a result of the findings from phase two. The findings of phase two can be found in Chapter seven, and detailed the organisational needs as articulated by senior managers and school personnel. Data triangulation is used to establish the validity of this qualitative study. Phase one took place from 2004-06, and Phase two began in 2007. The data collection and analysis was completed in a year. A time frame for the visits is detailed in Chapter five. Figure 5.3 illustrates the research schedule planned in order to carry out the research, implemented to answers the research questions three and four:

3. What new knowledge, if any, was created through collaborative co-inquiry?
4. If so, how was new knowledge utilised and implemented?

There would be little point in creating new knowledge if the RBP were not to benefit from it, the research activity would be futile. Consequently in order to answer the research questions stated in the previous paragraph and for the RBP to benefit three stages for the research in phase two were created:

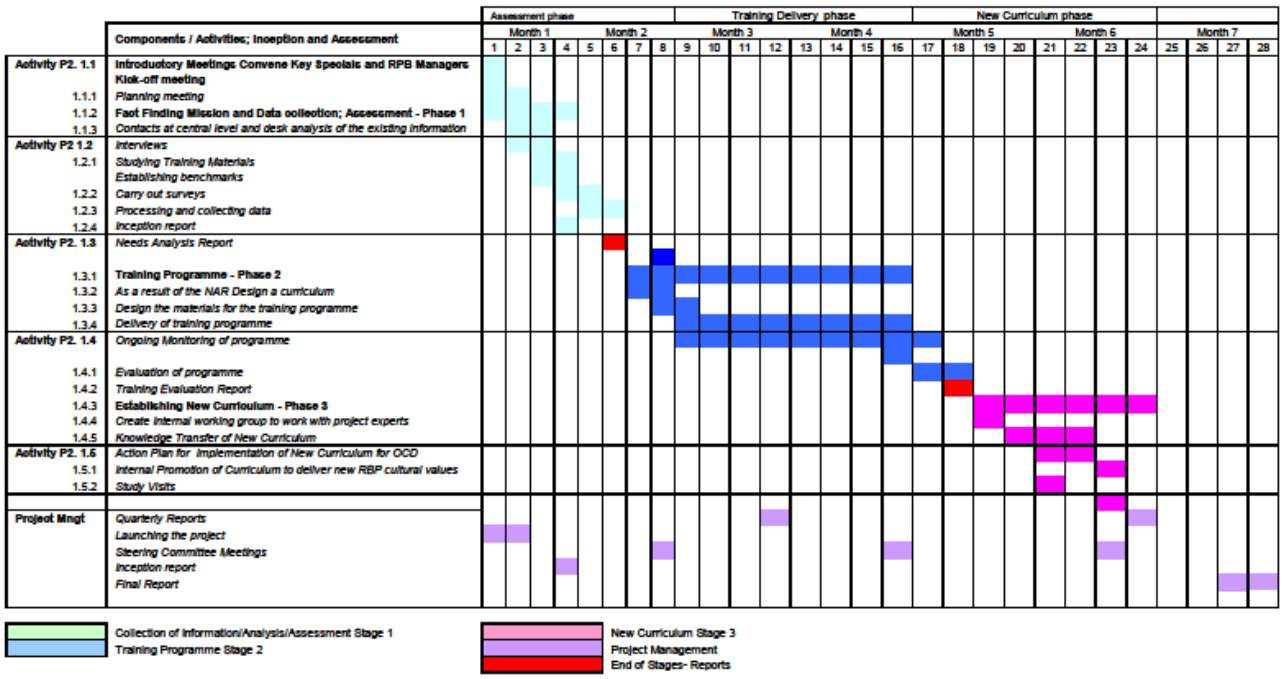
1. Assessment stage: consisting of data collection in the Schools
2. Elaboration stage: developing a plan or strategy out of the knowledge created
3. Embedding: how the new knowledge was utilised and implemented.

In terms of the research design, phase two is built on the outcomes of phase one in order to address the research questions, and validate the findings emerging from phase one. In keeping with phase one a qualitative research strategy has been used for the analysis of the data generated from interviews and questionnaires, with an inductive approach to the relationship between theory and research and an interpretive epistemological orientation (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991; Seale, 1998).

The following paragraph outlines the activities in the assessment stage. An important objective before gathering the data in this phase was to identify the current context and culture of the training schools. An organisation cultural analysis had been conducted by the RBP managers as presented in chapter four, but this did not specially focus on the training schools. Consequently it was important to establish what was perceived to be best 'EU aligned' practice for educating and training the border police of EU member states in Schengen. Background knowledge of this was helpful to the researcher.

Table 5.2 Phase 2 Research activities

Sequence and duration of the proposed research activities; phase 2.



Source: Author Derived

This exercise followed the principles of Geppert and Clark (2002) who advocate the importance of knowing a culture before creating or building knowledge. Hence, the main focus of this first stage was a fact finding mission. The term 'Fact-finding' is a 'hard', technical expression, and has been deliberately used to demonstrated the formal investigative process of using 'fact finding' as a means of verification of the findings in phase one. Finding out about the schools consisted of examining samples of relevant training materials such as curriculum documents, training policies, and schemes of work, lesson plans, assessments, and trainee evaluations were made available to assist with the fact finding. It was also important to establish current design, new courses/curriculum, the modules and blocks of learning that make up a course, how these are delivered, the training and the teaching methods and learning aids used, how learning is assessed, how consistency and fairness of

marking is ensured across the School. Finally, how monitoring and quality of training is ensured. An informal visit of the training facilities at the GIBP and Orshova took place to see the Schools in action. There was an opportunity to speak to the RBP students informally after the sessions. This happened before the start of phase two research. None of this influenced the research findings, but gave an insightful context to the researcher.

The research activities took place over the period 21 January to 7 March 2008, in line with the proposed timings for activities as stipulated in the research schedule (figure 5.3). A 'kick-off' meeting launched the project. The meeting took place on 28 January 2008 in Bucharest at the GIBP Headquarters. The purpose of the meeting was to launch the research project, meet key officials from the Schools, establish a rapport, to carry out a scoping discussion, clarify any outstanding concerns, establish the arrangements for project management, and establish procedures. After this meeting an operation Action Plan was drawn up.

Data collection took place in the Schools between 29 January and 15 February 2008. All seven RBP Training Schools were visited in order to review and understand the current training carried out within the centres at all levels. The GIBP also took part in the research, but is not strictly classed as a training school. The GIBP has its own training rooms and a small team of professors but is essentially the administrative centre for the police force. However, the fact that training took place here legitimised the reason for including it in the data gathering exercise.

Table 5.3 illustrates the date of the visits to the schools, the name of the Schools and the number of personnel who completed a questionnaire and took part in the follow up interview. There were five from each school, 35 in total, consisting of the deputies of the training Schools and four senior professors, usually heads of department in a particular field. Deputies of the Schools were interviewed rather than heads as most heads of Schools had completed the University Diploma and had been involved in the first phase of the research. The four professors taking part from each of the schools were selected by the School. All RBP participants were willing, and names are anonymous.

A questionnaire was designed using the same principles as outlined in section 5.4 on research methods (appendix three). At each visit the participants would complete a questionnaire after a formal introduction of the aims and objectives of the research. The following day a follow up interview would be held to clarify any outstanding issues or ambiguities in the questionnaire (appendix four). In the case of the School at Oradea the interviews were held in the evening to keep to the schedule.

Table 5.3 Training School Visits

Date of Visit	Name of School	Personnel Completing Questionnaire and Interview
28.01.08 15.02.08	GIBP (General Inspectorate of the Border Police- Bucharest)	Head of the Training Function 4 Professors
29.01.08	Orsova	Head of Training in the Field 4 Professors
11.02.08	Oradea	*Deputy of Training School 4 Professors
12.02.08	Iasi	*Deputy of Training School 4 Professors
16.02.08	Contanta	Deputy of Training School 4 Professors
13.02.08	Timisoara	Deputy of Training School 4 Professors
15.02.08	Guirgu	Deputy of Training School 4 Professors

Source : Author Derived

*This denotes the second deputy in the training schools. All schools had two deputies.

The questionnaire was important in eliciting data that could later be compared with the findings in phase one and can be found in appendix three. A sensitive approach was taken to the questionnaire design. Rather than launching into the specific themes found in phase one a wider understanding of the schools views on 'modernisation' (change and development) was important in identifying any

barriers to change in the organisation. The themes found in phase one could be introduced in the latter part of the questionnaire, and the concern was not to prompt respondents by introducing phase one themes too early. With the many external pressures and demands to 'modernize' (whether relating to curriculum design, training delivery, learning assessment, or quality monitoring) the questionnaire asked what they perceived to be the major requirements for change and improvement and what were their current priority needs, and why. In order to capture information about the difficulty in trying to achieve change, questions were asked concerning the type of formal procedures professors would have to follow when they are required to design new courses/curriculums and modules of learning, or introduce new teaching or assessment methods. Also in relation to change questions were asked about the documentation in the schools, and whether they were standardised or was their freedom to design their own documents. More specifically about the courses staff were asked about mechanisms for ensuring new courses are truly 'fit for purpose' prior to them being delivered for the first time, and whether formal 'quality assurance' monitoring systems were in place to ensure all of the training delivered by your training school is effective, and provides all trainees with good learning experiences.

Questions on collaboration with other training schools were asked to get a feel of the kind of relationship existing between the training schools. This was important to ascertain the extent to which they had the autonomy to make their own decisions, and to what extent did they work with other schools collaboratively on the overall school's curriculum, teaching methods and training approaches, and in what way were the training systems, procedures and approaches to the training of agents and police officers the same or different from, those devised and used by some or all of the other training schools. This was somewhat difficult to deduce from a review of curriculum documents seen, and bearing in mind there was a lot of commonality of provision across the schools, both in terms of the initial and continuing training of RBP agents and police officers, it was crucial to the research to know to what extent was there a need for consistency and/or a form of standardisation of training systems and formal procedures across the whole of the RBP. There would be little point in designing an organisational wide curriculum if

schools had the autonomy to deliver their own, and without internal pressure to conform from the General Inspectorate in Bucharest.

The questions needed to be linked to their perception of what would be the biggest 'modernization' challenge confronting their training school, particularly resulting from the EU accession, and the introduction of the 'Frontex' Common Core Curriculum when Romania becomes a full member of the 'Schengen acquis'. Other questions included: what further changes and improvements would be required? And, what are the challenges confronting the RBP training schools in modernising to achieve EU alignment?

Finally, questions on what type of changes and improvements in performance did they believe would be needed (if any) by the professors and administrative staff in their training school if a fully modernized EU-aligned training system is to be achieved and what must the professors/trainers in their training school do differently or better in the future for optimal success? Also what must their managers do differently or better? What must the administrative and other support staff do differently or better if the desired benefits of the RBP project are to be firmly embedded and sustained within the organization?

The themes from phase one were added at the end of the questionnaire and the participating training school personnel were asked to rank them in order of importance to the organisation and the schools.

With all questionnaires it is important to give the respondent an opportunity to add to what has been said. Hence summing up questions was added at the end of the questionnaire, stating that In light of what they had shared, what new knowledge and skills did they think the professors and managers need to be trained in, and also, what did they personally want to gain from the research (if anything)?

The interviews that followed were semi-structured, and interviewees were able to talk spontaneously and freely, as they felt they needed, but the purpose was ultimately to clarify what had been said in the questionnaire. Interview questions

can be seen in appendix four. Subsequently there was a steer towards statements made in the questionnaire, to avoid going off track. The major advantage of the interview is the potential for revealing attitudes, feelings and motives hidden in written responses (Bell 2005). Capturing the feeling, attitudes and motives of the managers were crucial in securing meaningful data, elicited through conversations. As the interviews were conducted on a one to one basis it was possible to turn the interviews into a conversation, giving the researcher the opportunity to explore an individual's opinion in depth. The interviews were carried out in the same way as described in section 5.4. All interviews were carried out privately in a room on the school premises.

An inventory of pedagogical strategies to identify current practice was developed later as a result of the findings from phase two. Its purpose is explained in chapter seven.

Throughout this process regular meetings were held with the RBP HRD Director, and the researcher. This was considered to be a critical factor for successful implementation. It served as a monitoring process to ensure the smooth transition of the research. It had been agreed that if at any stage the research was causing hostility in the schools then it would be have to be abandoned.

The analysis of the data has been approached using the same technique as in phase one by coding frequently occurring themes, but for phase two Nvivo was not used to group themes. The data was analysed using a method of manual coding. As mentioned earlier coding is an interpretive technique that seeks to both organise data and provide a means to introduce the interpretations of it into certain quantitative methods. Coding was done conservatively by labelling the themes using the same codes as for phase one. When coding is complete a summary of the prevalence of themes is presented discussing similarities and differences in related codes across distinct original sources/contexts, and compared the relationship between one or more codes (Bryman 2001). The key themes were analysed systematically to reveal the significant findings. The method used was that used by Stemler (2001) where content analysis is defined as a systematic replicable

technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories, and enables researchers to sift through large volumes of data with relative ease in a systematic fashion. It can be a useful technique for allowing us to discover and describe the focus of individual, group, institutional, or social attention (Weber, 1990).

Figure 5.2 illustrates the key codes using in phase two. The knowledge theme code was kept the same as for phase one and was denoted by a 'k', but the participants were denoted with the letter 'p'. The letter 'q' and 'i' were the same codes used in phase one for identifying sources of data from questionnaires and interviews.

Figure 5.2 Coding used in Phase Two

Variables	Coding
Training School Personnel	***P (followed by a number to denote the manager)***
Quotes from questionnaires	***Q***
Interview data	***I***
Knowledge Themes	***K (followed by the theme number)***

Source: Derived by Author (2008)

The intention after the assessment stage or data collection was to elaborate on the findings by working on an implementation plan on how new knowledge could be embedded in the organisation working practice. The results of this are in chapter seven.

5.8 Ensuring the Trustworthiness of the Findings

In ensuring the trustworthiness of the data the adoption of well established research methods in qualitative research have been used. Yin (1994) recognised the importance of incorporating correct operational measures for the concepts being studied. Thus, the specific procedures employed in the research for data gathering sessions and the methods of data analysis have been derived from those that have been successfully utilised in previous comparable projects.

Shenton (2004) stressed the importance of demonstrating how qualitative researchers can incorporate measures that deal with the issue of validity and reliability. A form of triangulation has involved the use of a wide range of informants. This is one way of triangulating via data sources. Here individual viewpoints and experiences in phase one have been verified against others in phase two and, ultimately, a rich and trustworthy picture of the attitudes, needs or behaviour of those involved in the research have been constructed based on the contributions of a range of people.

Frequent debriefing sessions between the researcher and the RBP were held. Such collaborative sessions were helpful in ensuring that the data collection was effective and reflected the views of the RBP managers. In addition to this the researcher's reflective commentary in the form of a journal was kept. This helped to evaluate the research process, as it developed. The reflective commentary was also used to record the researcher's initial impressions of each data collection session, patterns appearing to emerge in the data collected and theories generated, thus adding to the trustworthiness of the data.

The use of NVivo adds to the trustworthiness of the data in terms of groupings and themes identified. NVivo is an advanced qualitative computer packages, enabling researchers to demonstrate their analysis better.

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter explains the methodological choice and considerations for addressing the research questions as outlined in chapter one. This chapter details the process and methods used for collecting the research data. The general approach has been guided by the research question. The rationale for adopting the research methods were presented in two phases. In phase one a collaborative co-inquiry approach was adopted working closely with managers using qualitative research methods for the data collection and analysis. The data collected was through the use of journals using critical reflective methods and the chapter details how this was introduced and implemented. For phase two qualitative research methods were deployed for

the purpose of collecting relevant data for the triangulation. This chapter explains how the research methods were employed.

CHAPTER SIX

Phase One: Data Analysis and Findings

6.1 Introduction

This chapter brings some coherence to the many themes emerging from this research. It presents the findings and emphasises the wider context of the research in terms of the process, and the generated knowledge created for sustainable OCD. Furthermore, the findings demonstrate the complex nature of the research, and the many strands and methods of data collection to elicit the information needed to assist the organisation in their long-term strategic aims. This research was carried out over two distinct phases, as detailed in the previous chapter, and the findings will be presented under two distinctive Chapters. Phase one presents findings from the knowledge building framework (the process), findings from manager insights of the process of critical reflection (the process), and findings from the interviews and journal analysis (knowledge created). Phase two presents the developed model of validation and implementation. In summary, phase one presents the findings from the implementation of the original conceptual framework, and emergent knowledge created over the research period, and addresses the main research questions of:

1. *How do Geppert and Clark's five factor framework, and Bereiter and Scardamalia's knowledge building community principles help facilitate the creation of new knowledge in the RBP?*
2. *How does collaborative co-inquiry and the use of journals in a specific organisational context better assist in knowledge generation and why?*
3. *What new knowledge, if any, was created through collaborative co-inquiry?*
4. *If so how was new knowledge utilised and implemented?*
5. *Can Knowledge creation for sustainable OCD in transitional contexts be expressed in the form of a conceptual process model?*

The findings in phase one have emanated from three strands of the collaborative co-inquiry research, and is presented in three distinct sections of this chapter.

1. Findings from the knowledge building framework

2. Findings from manager insights on the process of Critical Reflection
3. Findings from the Interviews and Journal Analysis (generated data)

6.2 Findings from the Knowledge Building Framework and Process

This section presents the developed conceptual model for the research process. The conceptual model for the research as illustrated in Chapter one exemplifies how new knowledge was generated as the Romanian managers developed UK/US (Western) HRD ideas relevant to their own cultural context with a knowledge building framework. The evolution of the framework addresses the first research questions:

> *How do Geppert and Clark's five factor framework, and Bereiter and Scardamalia's knowledge building community principles help facilitate the creation of new knowledge in the RBP?*

As already indicated, the rationale for using the ideas of Geppert and Clark (2002) came after a long exploration of the literature to establish a suitable framework for this research. Their ideas were used primarily as a basis for the process, a template from which to work, and a process for the development of an emergent conceptual model of knowledge creation. It should be established at this point that Geppert and Clark do not forward a model in an illustrative format as this research has done. They explain the five factors, but no diagram is given. Figure 6.1 offers a diagrammatic representation of the theoretical relationship. It illustrates that initially knowledge was transferred in the transnational social space, using a traditional didactical method delivered through the researcher. At this stage new knowledge was not created. This came later when the transfer and learning process took place in the Romanian arena. The context became a trigger for beginning to recognise the importance of what was later understood as knowledge building (based on Bereiter and Scardamalia 2002). Here new knowledge was generated as the Romanian managers developed Western HRD ideas relevant to their own cultural context. The created knowledge was developed to inform the change process for their modernisation strategy, in the areas of organisational behaviour and development, as is the case with organisational culture change. At the macro

level the knowledge created was synthesised for pedagogical consideration, in both areas of teaching and research, research papers, publications and new models of knowledge creation were developed from the UWBS/RBP relationship for the global context. The double arrows depicted in the transnational social space illustrate the site of knowledge transfer at the start of the programme of study. This site later becomes the arena for new knowledge. 'Thinking space' is a metaphor for the time used to reflect on the development of ideas after each collaborative meeting. This time was also given to discussing newly generated knowledge to participants from both organisations. The arrows do not necessarily denote the flow of knowledge but should be seen as a general illustration of the dynamic nature of the flow of ideas.

The revised model, Figure 6.2, emphasises the changed nature of the research process and in particular the 'transitional social space', which became the forum for collaborative co-inquiry. The double arrows depicted in the 'Thinking space', used to reflect on the development of ideas for recording in journals, became the managers (and researchers) critical reflective period. The arrows do not necessarily denote the flow of knowledge but should be seen as a general illustration of the dynamic nature of the flow of ideas. This remained the same as the original model in Chapter one. It is important to point out the changing nature of the model, as one of the concerns was to develop an appropriate structure or forum to facilitate knowledge creation with the RBP.

Figure 6.1 Original Model of the Research Process

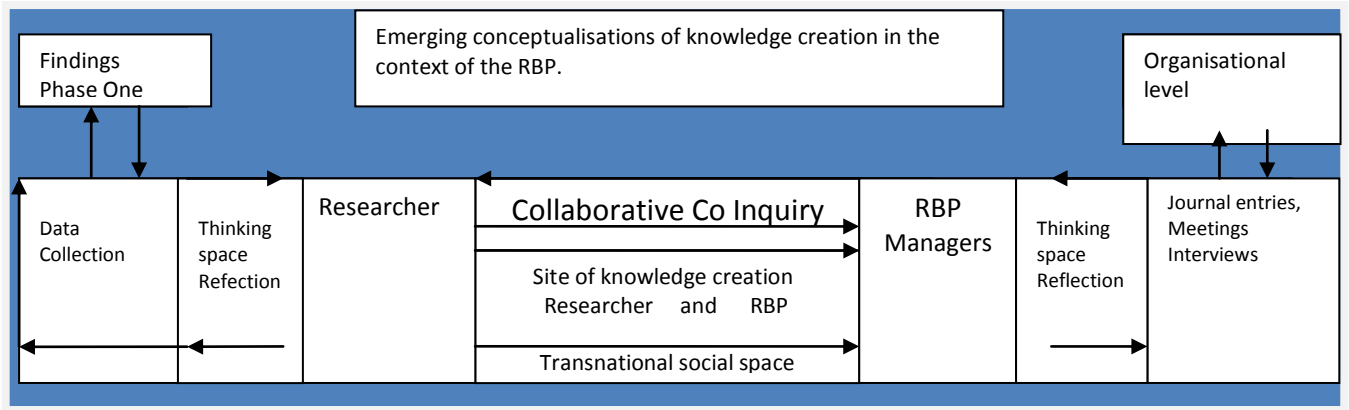
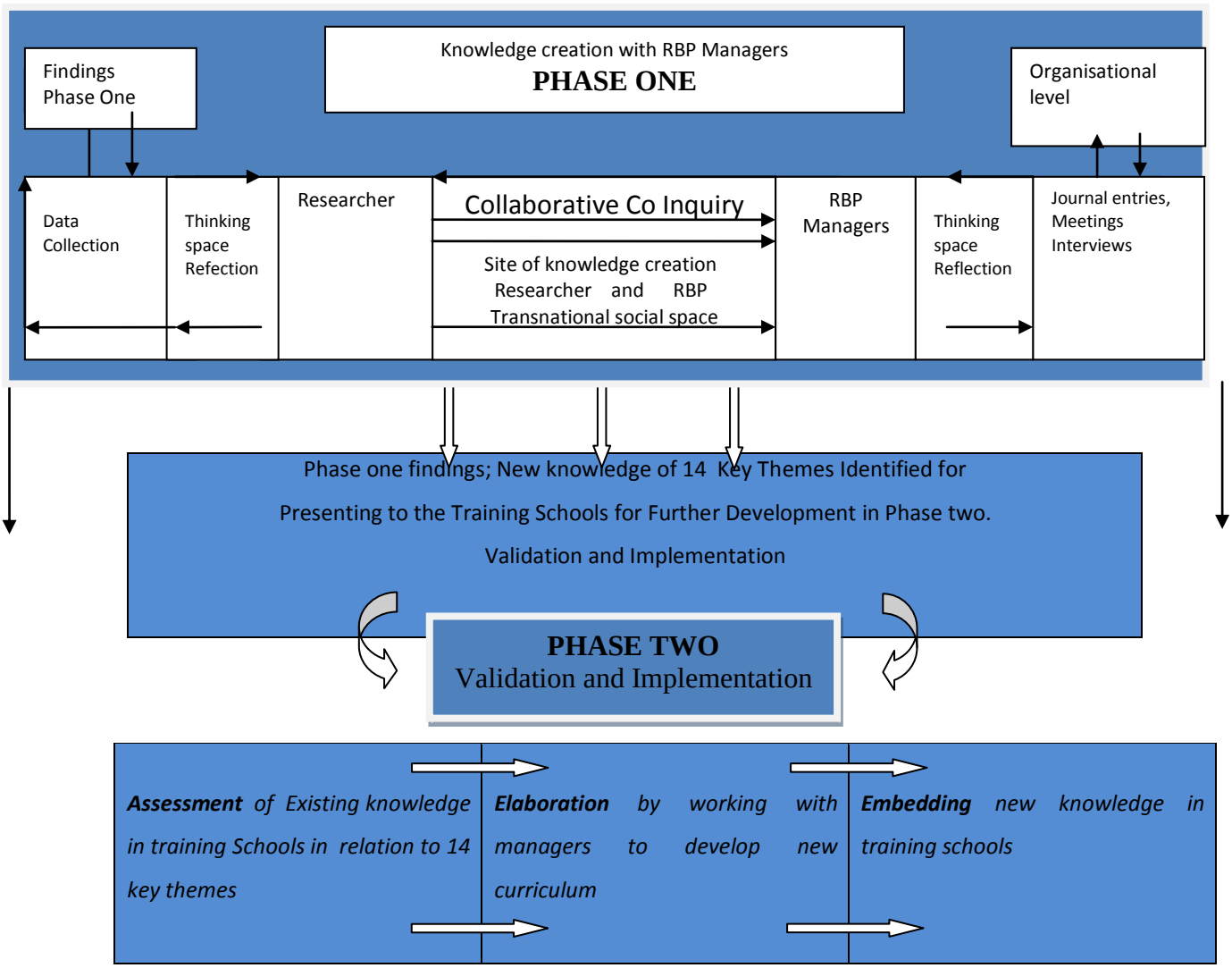


Figure 6.2 illustrates the development of the research process with the creation of new knowledge and its implementation into organisation practices. Hence the process model became more sophisticated than was first anticipated. The conceptual framework, forming the knowledge building community and research process will be further discussed in the next chapter in phase two, but illustrates the complexity of the process and its development from the original model. Indeed the initial model helped inform a more sophisticated process model to include the extent to which the new knowledge was implemented or integrated. This was omitted from Geppert and Clark's model, who concentrated on the framework for knowledge creation rather than its validation and integration. Over the last ten years research carried out on models of knowledge transfer feature largely in this research field to include that of Tsoukas (2003), Holden and Kortzfleisch (2004), Burns and Paton (2005), Schulze and Hoegl (2011). Models of implementation and their practice are less prevalent, and virtually nonexistent in an Eastern European organizational context. Few researchers have focused their studies on both creation and integration, with the exception of Illes, Wong and Yolles (2004), and Alcorn (2010).This research has made a contribution in developing a conceptual framework of knowledge creation *Validation,* and *Implementation*. However, as this is not a longitudinal study the effectiveness and impact of the new knowledge is unknown.

The amount of new knowledge generated, as presented in the following sections, is evidence enough to suggest that this was an appropriate framework for this research. Each factor of the original framework was modified accordingly as follows, and presents the verdict on implementation of each of the five factors. The verdict also serves to evaluate the framework in terms of effectiveness in the process of creating knowledge, and consequently the appropriateness and applicability. Figure 6.2 demonstrates how Geppert and Clark's five factors above were developed to create a structure suitable for the knowledge creation, and emerged as below.

Figure 6.2 Phase One: Process with the RBP on Methods Used



Source: Author Derived (2009)

The first factor cited in Geppert and Clark's framework places importance on national, economic, and institutional culture. These have a considerable impact on the process of knowledge transfer, and ultimately affect how knowledge is restructured and redefined. In response to this, and to ensure the framework was applied with rigour, research was carried out on Romanian National Culture, and RBP organisation culture resulting in the Chapter on 'Cultural considerations'. It was important for all participants in the process to understand the culture in which this research was being carried out, this said for the co-collaborators as well as the researcher. Conversely, it was important for the managers to have an

understanding of British culture if they were to be involved in collaborative research with a British researcher. Fortunately they were familiar with British culture having visited Britain twice during the research period, but some had visited several times before the start of the research. They were all English speaking and through working on EU projects had been in contact with the British on many occasions. Geppert and Clark emphasise cultural awareness in a wider context but the challenge for this research was to ensure that the collaborators understood the research process, as this may not be a research method familiar to their culture. To develop the model, therefore, the cultural consideration that Geppert and Clark speak of should be expanded to incorporate an understanding not only of the national cultural context in which the research is conducted, but also an understanding of the research methods used to elicit the new knowledge.

The second factor in the process was the researcher and the ethnocentric managers, which assumes a monopoly of appropriate knowledge and skills for organisational development. This links in with the epistemological views forwarded in chapter two, that knowledge is not seen as an objective, transferable commodity, and claims that organisational knowledge is always the outcome of interactive social processes and contestation and is knowledge-in-the-making through a knowledge building community.

The transnational social space, the third factor, was the arena in which local and global knowledge mingle, reflective practice self-appraised, processes of learning take place, and sense is made of the research. The venue was surprisingly the most important factor in achieving desired research results. At a micro-level suitable venues were imperative in aiding concentration, and productivity. In the researcher/RBP relationship initially this was the 'formal' educational space at the university – with knowledge being taken back to Romania. The space then became, in the main, the RBP Headquarters in Bucharest, and also the RBP conference suites in Bucharest for the final meeting. In the social space consideration was given to what local and global knowledge has been synthesised or produced to create new knowledge, giving further consideration to how power is exercised, and the dynamic of the relationship. The impact of the arrangement was considered, and

the finding was that the managers were more relaxed in their own work environment than anywhere else. Their work environment created a climate conducive to the process. This might be obvious but is not explicit in Geppert and Clark's model.

The fourth factor in the framework relates to the emergent knowledge at micro/organisational level, this as is shown in section 6.6 in the data collected from the interviews and journal entries.

The fifth factor is a concern for the process to have wider exposure and is repeated across many transnational arenas, and the implication for global socioeconomic structure, and how the new practice and structure in turn influence future methods of creating organisation knowledge.

6.3 Findings from the Questionnaire; Insights on the Process of Critical Reflection

The following section examines the findings from the questionnaire on critical reflection using journals (appendix one); the findings address the research questions of:

> *How does collaborative co-inquiry and the use of journals in a specific organisational context better assist in knowledge generation and why?*
>
> *What new knowledge, if any, was created through collaborative co-inquiry?*

At the end of the first year and preceding the final interviews the managers were asked how they had gone about recording events of the collaborative meetings, and workplace critical incidents to gain an understanding of their journal entries. This has not been directly addressed during the research period so as not to impede the spontaneity and continuity of their records. In hindsight perhaps the theory and practice of reflection should have been periodically reinforced. The rationale behind the non-intervention was to facilitate a more natural process

A questionnaire considered the managers' understanding of, and engagement in the process of co-inquiry using critical reflective practice. When asked if they had engaged in critical reflection daily since being involved in the research, two of the fourteen managers answered 'yes', others did not comment. There were many similar views on what was considered to be the meaning of critical reflection. Eleven managers saw it as a technique for constantly reviewing their own actions and strategies in the light of new information leading to improvement and change. The emphasis of this reported 'review' was on the measurement of success of their actions with an attempt to evaluate the outcomes. Two managers mentioned applying theoretical models and concepts against which to examine and inform their practice, with one manager recognising the need to apply these to formulating a strategic plan.

> ***'I have used a gap analysis in an attempt to workout what steps to take in improving my school'(Mq3)***
>
> ***'I am thinking to use the principles of action research to improve systems. I need to find out more about this' (Mq13)***
>
> ***'...in writing our strategic plan it is now clear to me that historically this has been done on the basis of what the Ministry of Interior have wanted us to do. There has been no consideration to achieving long term future goals. We would not think about the bigger picture in terms of what the EU would want or about want we needed as a specialised security force. It would be about spending the budget as the Ministry wanted us to. We should have been applying a force field analysis looking at change or something like porters 5 forces and McKinsey 7's. Strategy was formulated in the board room with the Chief, not the best way to go about it'. (Mq1)***

None of the managers came near to the original definition of critical reflection given at the start by mentioning the questioning of beliefs and assumptions, and the idea of continuously participating in reflection 'on' and 'in' action. Neither did they talk about reintegrating experiences and reformulating meaning and principles for living, resulting in new guidelines for action.

'Critical Reflection is to continually think about your actions and hope you are doing the right thing for your organisation' (M11q)

'I have been doing reflective practice but it's very difficult for me To define'(M3q)

'I know what it is but can't describe it exactly- it's thinking deeper than you would normally do'(M7q)

One manager included the importance of the involvement of others in the process, but there was also an acknowledgment of the importance of understanding difference, and the contribution different ideas can make collectively.

'Collectively we can come up with really good ideas' (M6q)

'...two heads are better than one and if we share ideas we can put them all together, discount those ideas we think are not workable and go with those we think will help us'(M7q)

'If you have a collective idea it's easier to sell it to the Chief than if the idea was yours alone' (M13q)

Although all managers said they were engaged in reflective practices 'consistently' or 'sometimes', when asked in what form and contexts, not all answered this question. Those forwarding information gave the following forms and contexts consisting of: discussion with colleagues, use of journals, reflecting on the current state of the organisation (mission, vision, strategy), reflecting on improving organisational systems including the Training Schools, different ways of managing, continuous professional development, and the analysis of critical incidents.

'I reflected every day, sometimes informally where I would think only about an event and sometimes formally where I would record an event in the my journal'(M7q)

'I made a decision to engage when I thought the matter was Important to the organisation, and particularly when I thought we could improve the way we do things' (M10q)

'I would consistently reflect on the situation in the training schools. This is where the problems are. We need to change them to make the RBP a modern border force in the EU' (M3q)

'I frequently spoke to my colleagues about how they were using the journal, how much detail they were writing, and what kinds of things. I needed an example as I was unsure if I was recording the right things and doing it properly' (M7q)

6.4 Critical Reflection in the workplace

One question asked was related to critical reflection in the workplace and its transferability for assisting in the creation of new knowledge. This question did not get any meaningful responses. Seven managers simply said 'yes' without justification but one manager said the following;

'....to bring us in line with innovative ways of thinking we must embrace critical reflective practices and acknowledge the importance of this to the workplace in creating new practices' (M1q)

Managers were asked to comment on whether their organisation encouraged or would encourage critical reflective practices in the future. In hindsight it was obvious that the answer to this would be a resounding 'no'. When asked to explain further the following was reported by one manager:

'My organisation doesn't know what reflection is. I would waste my breath asking about it, they simply wouldn't understand' (M11q)

'Never! They don't know what it is' (M10q)

'If it was explained to them they might understand it but we wouldn't be given the time' (M1q)

The organisation would see it as time wasting because they don't Understand' (M1q)

Knowing the frequency of journal entries was important to ensure the level of commitment and continuity. The responses to asking how frequent journals were used revealed different practices. Several of the managers were found to be writing something in their journals daily, whereas others would wait for a significant event to write about. Two managers claimed they tried to record their thoughts every two or three days, but not daily. Differing practices were demonstrated when it came to frequency and amount of written data. It was not stipulated as to how often or how much should be written. When managers were asked would you engage more if the organisation gave you time**,** as one might expect all respondents reported in the affirmative to this question. It was interesting however that one respondent thought it was a burden. Having worked within a communist, command and control regime, where thinking was done by others he found it difficult to adopt a mindset where he could reflect freely on a daily basis.

'At first I thought it was a really good idea and was looking forward to using a journal to record important things I consider need to be changed. It was ok to begin with but after a few weeks I got bored and was forgetting to write anything. I also went through a very busy period when I couldn't think about the journal as I was trying to meet a deadline. I found it a hard discipline to put my ideas on paper regularly- this is something I haven't had to do much of. Most of my work comes in the form of instructions and I act on these' (M8q)

Five added that although they might undertake critical reflection given more time, they put a strong emphasis on the necessity to actually do their jobs, implying that critical reflection was a superfluous activity.

'...doing my daily tasks is more important than thinking about the journal' (M6q)

'We are a European Border Police force- in the wider context the journal is not a priority' (M14q)

'Completing my journal is secondary to everything I do in the GIBP' (General Inspectorate Border Police) (M5q)

When asked what the organisation should do to encourage critical reflection, all indicated time to be the most important inducement to such practice. *All* believed that critical reflection should be embedded into the ways things were done from induction right through to appraisal. Coaching and mentoring was also indicated to be a useful way of creating a sympathetic climate to reflection.

On critical reflection in the workplace three managers commented:

'We had time to reflect on things that we had done. We called it thinking space' (M9q)

'…..yes the thinking space was very necessary otherwise we wouldn't have had time to work things out and put things together……knowledge it's like pieces of a jigsaw'(M13q)

'In the past we had never been taught how to reflect, or even to think for ourselves. Thinking time is very important' (M14q)

Twelve managers felt it a form of self-discipline, and answered in the affirmative to the transferability of critical reflection to the workplace. At the end of the questionnaire an opportunity was given for those wishing to make any additional comments. Some of the most interesting findings came from these responses.

'A cultural change can only be achieved if we know how to go about organisation change through effective development' (M3q)

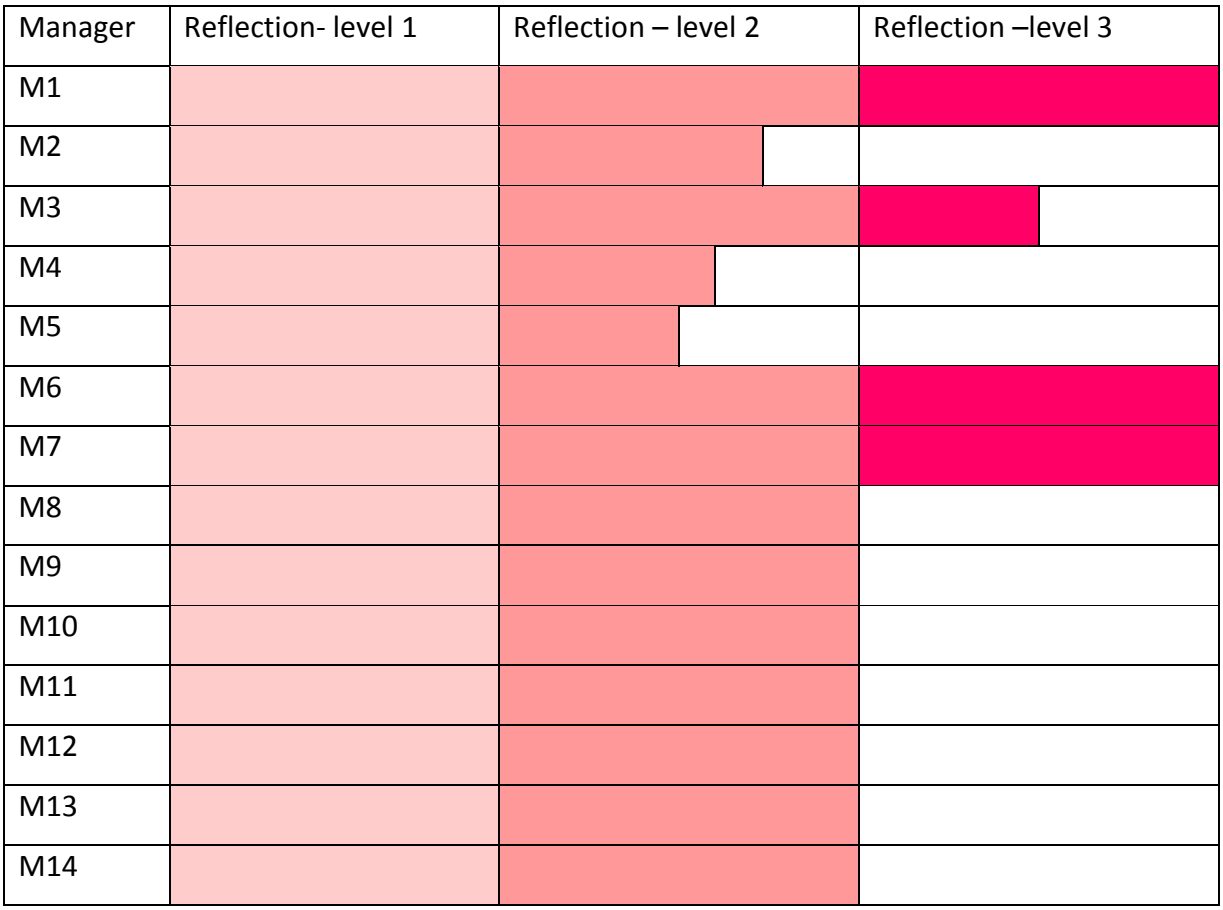
'i feel valued that an interest has been taken in me and my ideas, and there is a possibility my ideas might be used…..the whole process has been fascinating'(Mq4)

''what has happened is totally new to us' (M14q)

6.5 Levels of Reflection (Journals)

The managers' journals were examined from two perspectives; in the light of the Hatton and Smith (1995) criteria for critical reflection to gain some insight into whether they had in fact engaged in reflection at the higher levels, and secondly using qualitative statements data for further analysis using NVivo. Qualitative data collected was matched and plotted against the three levels: descriptive reflection of events (Level 1), dialogic reflection indicating some stepping back from the event and exploring with self the reasons for action (Level 2) and finally critical reflection, exploring the reasons for the event in broader ethical, moral historical and political context. (Level 3) Qualitative description and analysis explored by the managers came from a number of sources, the workplace, collaborative co inquiry meetings, individual professional development and gave an indication of the degree to which they had engaged in the various levels of reflection.

Figure 6.3 Levels of Reflection from Managers Journals



Source: Author Derived (2008)

As shown in Figure 6.3, all fourteen managers indicated a confidence in reflecting at an individual level on their experiences in the workplace and clearly demonstrated Level 1 descriptive reflection. All managers were able to discuss issues and

sometimes feelings which had impinged on their actions in the workplace. There is also evidence from the Figure 6.3 that ten managers were moving through dialogic reflection (level 1) into challenging taken for granted assumptions about themselves, their work and the context within which they were operating. The others also engaged in reflection at this level but only occasionally.

Three managers were clearly reflecting at level 3, demonstrated by the following statements taken from their journals;

> ***'I was hungry for new knowledge and a little frightened that I might not be able to implement new ideas, new knowledge properly so that it makes a difference' (M6q)***
>
> ***'Why do I want to get change through so quickly? Why am I so impatient? Is it because of inexperience regarding how long it takes to actually effect change? Is it because in XYZ. I have seen so many people accept the norm because it is the way things have always been done, that I feel I have to effect change single handed? The value of the work I have been doing and the way I have been doing it that this somehow invalidates my worth?'(M1q)***
>
> ***'You need to have the confidence to challenge up- something forbidden in my culture but perhaps we should try and see what happens' (M7q)***
>
> ***'Because it has come from above doesn't mean that it is right.' (M1q)***
>
> ***'in the initial stage for sure you have a high percentage of direct knowledge transfer, then you start to work things out for yourself, by doing this you create your own ways of doing thing and you new knowledge is created' (M7q)***

The findings from this exercise have helped in understanding the 'co-inquirers' interpretation of critical reflective practice, and also help to understand the quality of the data generated from the journals. Figure 6.3 demonstrates that all managers were reflecting at level 2, and engaging in dialogic reflection indicating some stepping back from the event and exploring with self the reasons for action. On this basis the quality of the data generated from the journals can be viewed as having

value in creating new knowledge for organisation development. Furthermore, the use of journals helped managers in recognising individual differences and used the differences to understand and unpick workplace culture. One manger indicated how his involvement in the research process allowed him to consider his peers as individuals. There was evidence and an acknowledgment or awareness of individual difference not recognised previously;

> '***it's important to see colleagues point of view and accept different styles of working'(M8q)***
>
> ***'I hadn't really thought about it before but we do not necessarily all the think the same way – just because we have had the same training doesn't mean we are the same in out heads' (M8q)***
>
> ***'I didn't take into account of individual difference and the value of having different opinions. We come from a culture where you don't think for yourself the organisation tells you what to do, in this situation individualism serves no purpose' (M3q)***

Overall the evidence presented would suggest that the managers were successful in embracing the concept of critical reflection by recording and capturing a rich source of qualitative data to help them improve their ways of working and bring about change. The journals are restricted to reflection on the organisation, workplace, and practical issues. It is, however, important to consider the individual personal and emotional aspects impacting on their journals, much of the wider context is covered *generally* in previous chapters on history and culture (Chapter three and four). This raises one of the limitations with using journals. The use of a journal alone is a form of self-reporting (Cheng and Hampton 2008), by its very nature a reporting mechanism designed to encourage the managers to be honest and open without restriction, but can present a conundrum when trying to understand the reasons behind some of the entries. What has also been demonstrated through the journals is that experience is not always easy to describe or articulate and that experiences at work are multifarious, relative and holistic. They are made up of many different aspects of the way we behave, think, act and interpret things around us, and are subject to constant change. Without the follow-up interviews it would have not

been possible to probe for a better understanding of what had been recorded. One of the concerns was to ensure that the experience had 'set them up for life', and in future they would be able to use the journal as a qualitative diary, 'a simple, flexible and potentially powerful instrument that is at least worthy of serious consideration a useful addition to the manager's kit bag of tools' (Clarkson and Hodgkinson 2007:696). For the RBP it is particularly important to engage in a process enabling them to reappraise past practice and help improve, and apply working methods effectively in the future. Presenting it this way gave the managers an alternative method and assisted them in understanding the need to maintain this and not relapse into their old ways (this was of great concern for them) and to view the journal as an instrument that could assist in identifying future challenges.

6.6 Findings from the Journal Analysis and Interview.

This section presents an analysis of the research data, and by doing so addresses the research question:

What new knowledge, if any, was created through collaborative co-inquiry?

The data generated derives from two main sources however there were some pertinent statements taken from the questionnaire about critical reflective practice. The two main sources were:

- Managers' Journal entries from collaborative working,
- Transcribed semi-structured interviews with each individual manager at the end of phase one.

Figure 6.4 Number of references made to each theme (Tree Nodes)

RANK ORDER	THEME	REFERENCES	SOURCES

K1	***New Knowledge (knowledge creation)***	165	14 (M1-M14)
K2	***Training system***	136	14 (M1-M14)
K3	***Training Schools***	117	8 (M3,M4,M5, M7,M8,M11,M13,M14)
K4	***Innovation***	115	11 (M1,M2,M,3,M5,M6,M7,M8, M9,M11,M,12,M13)
K5	***Organisation change and development***	111	12 (M1,M2,M,3,M4,M5,M6,M7,M8, M9,M11,M,12,M13)
K6	***New Curriculum***	90	13 (M2,M,3,M4,M5,M6,M7,M8, M9,M10,M11,M,12,M13,M14)
K7	***Developing ideas***	82	9 (M1,M2,M,3,M4,M7, M9,M11,M,12,M13)
K8	***Thinking space***	73	7 (M3,M4,M5,M6,M7,M8, M9,M11,M14)
K9	***Modernisation***	68	12 (M2,M,3,M4,M5,M6,M7,M8, M10,M11,M,12,M13,M14)
K10	***Developing research***	62	10 (M2,M,3,M4,M5,M6,M7,M8, M10,M11,M14)
K11	***Pedagogical methods***	57	12 (M1,M2,M4,M5,M6,M7,M8, M10,M,12,M13,M14)
K12	***Changing methods of working in the Schools***	36	14 (M1-M14)

K13	***Knowledge Sharing***	31	6 (M2,M3,M4,M5,M6, M10,M,12)
K14	***Sustainability***	30	8 (M5,M6,M7,M9 M10,M,12,M13,M14)

Source:Author Derived (2008)

A deeper analysis of the main themes is helpful in understanding how the managers perceived their organisation needs to enable a transformation into a 'modern' organisation capable of operating within the EU, and the knowledge needed to facilitate this. In particular it revealed their views on change, and what they thought was needed for their organisation to achieve sustainable OCD. Most importantly the analysis served to identify areas of new knowledge.

The most striking aspects of the findings relate to very personal views revealed about themselves and the organisation, views which had most definitely not been expressed before the research. This was insightful on how they perceived their 'world'. They also demonstrated reflection on their concerns about the future of the organisation and the perception of the outside world, as archaic with outdated training schools, training methods and equipment. In many ways this can be construed as a call for help. They saw 'knowledge transfer' or transfer of 'know how' as the panacea to help transform the organisation into a modern operation. Hence 'knowledge creation and transfer' were referred to more than any other category. However, the most important aspect emerging from new knowledge created revealed that the common issues raised were under the auspices of the training schools, and it would be the training schools that would require further investigation to verify the qualitative statements produced (see Chapter 7). Ten of the themes identified directly came under training school responsibility: K2,K3,K4,K5,K6,K7,K9,K10,K11,K12 (see figure 6.4). The following sections offer a further analysis, and rationale of the main themes, as the basis of newly created

knowledge for the RBP. The fourteen themes represent the main pillars of knowledge on which to build the research further for phase two.

K1.Knowledge Creation

All managers made frequent reference to this theme. This was the highest scoring theme, and comes as no surprise given that originally the managers were unsure *how*, and *what* 'new knowledge' would emerge. Knowledge transfer was easier for them to conceptualise at first, whereas knowledge creation was not obvious, definite, or easily understood. As the collaborative nature of the research unfolded the managers became more aware of the collective power in achieving this and that the research was more about a collaboration of ideas for creating new knowledge. The original PHARE funded training programme supporting the development of the RBP for EU accession was based on the notion of knowledge transfer, as stated in chapter one and the managers felt comfortable with this, hence the high reference to this theme. Most of the RBP EU projects pre-accession and post-accession were labelled as 'knowledge transfer' projects. The statements reflect learning at the early stages of the research, and relate to the training programme delivered in 2004.

What the following statements particularly demonstrate is the perceived value of the process of learning and what was learnt, the nature of the actual process – from transfer to collaboration, within a theory-practice dynamic.

> ***'we really benefited from the process of Wolverhampton lecturers (this is referring to the initial training programme) transferring knowledge to us the opportunity to think about creating new knowledge'(M6i)***

> ***'when we first met and we were taught in the classroom, initially I had depicted what was happening was knowledge transfer, from teachers to managers. A linear process of knowledge transfer. When we were part of the research collaboration I realised we were all contributing ideas that would benefit the organisation. We were coming up with ideas to create knowledge'(M6i)***

> ***'I don't think it's possible to transfer in the classroom all the knowledge you***

need to know, there is also the practice, not only theory. The practice is when you develop your own knowledge beneficial for the organisation. This is where the collaborative research was helpful'(M2j)

'I feel closer to my colleagues as we are working to create knowledge in a knowledge building community- trying to come up with common areas for change. This is better than someone coming and telling us what knowledge we need' (M12j)

'We are creating knowledge because we are writing about things we have never thought of before. I have to think about what I consider needs changing, and come up with the knowledge I have to bring about change. Previously I was fed up with sitting in training sessions from the EU telling us we must do this and that. Most of it had no relevance and I was thinking to say to the Director of HRD, these are meaningless training sessions, we could do something internally. He said 'what are you proposing' and i didn't really know, but the journals and working together to come up with our own ideas is the answer, i feel it, we all feel it. We know the organisation and outsiders don't. Creating our own knowledge is the way forward' (M7j)

'The best thing about this is that we are writing in our journals about the knowledge we have of the organisation and know it will be used in the future to better the organisation. This is the stimulus to keep the journal going. We are informing what changes will take place through the knowledge we are creating' (M14j)

The following statements demonstrate a shift from the notion of knowledge transfer and the beginnings of inquiry into 'knowledge creation' as the research progressed, and the important significant of new knowledge rather than transferred knowledge.

'in the initial stage for sure you have a high percentage of direct knowledge transfer, then you start to work things out for yourself, by doing this you create your own ways of doing thing and you new knowledge is created'(M12j)

'….from knowledge transfer came knowledge building'(M12j)

'I have thought about this and in the social arena there were new things being generated, or was it knowledge creation?'(M4j)

'I understand now what this is about. It's not about Janet telling us things and transferring her knowedge but we are telling her about us, and we are coming up with knowledge of our organisation to change things' (M2j)

The frequent reference to 'we' and the statement '*we are working to create knowledge in a knowledge building community'* concurs with the view that knowledge emerges out of debate, dialectics and collective inquiry (Harre and Gillett, 1994). One manager felt *'closer'* to his colleagues in creating knowledge through *'a knowledge building community'.* This is further evidence to support the claims of Scardamalia (2002) that knowledge-building principles enable the possibility of groups of practitioners/workers to function at the edges of competency and to extend beyond 'best practices' through collective cognitive responsibility.

K2 and K3 Training Schools and Training System

The 'Training Schools' and 'Training system' are two themes intrinsically linked and need to be seen as a connected unit. All managers except one referred to the training system several times throughout the research period (manager eight once). The training system for the RBP defines the organisation and the profession. All aspects of CPD from recruitment to retirement are conducted in the training schools. The RBP prides itself on the rigorous training and development methods used, and its Schools are seen as a 'showcase' for other organisations. The Training Schools however, to the outside world, were less of a showcase for training but more an example of military tradition and discipline. They were conducted with military precision, severe in maintaining discipline and rules. RBP students were test and exams driven, where failure was shameful and a great embarrassment. The managers referred to the training system negatively on all counts and references could be linked (appearing with other key themes in one sentence) with key themes such as modernisation, curriculum, and OCD. The critical comments

revealed a fundamental need for the organisation to review its training schools and training system. Until this was done then organisational change could not be achieved. This strongly correlates with theories of organisation change, and the relationship between training and organisation change. This finding confirmed that the site for making OCD improvements to the organisation systems and procedures for sustainability, were the Schools, and the statements below captured what needed to be done.

> ***'…and if the RBP want to bring about change then the Schools need to be modernised'.(M11j)***
>
> ***'The Schools are the arena for communicating the values and vision of the organisation, and we will never achieve change if we continue using outdated methods'(also in the section 'modernisation)(M3j)***
>
> ***'The Training Schools and training system hold the key for change in the organisation, they need to be updated in methods'.(M6j)***
>
> ***I have worked in the organisation for 32 years. In those 32 years nothing has changed. We are doing the same things now as we did then. Ok perhaps small things have changed and technical ability but in the main our methods are the same. The building remains the same...uniforms the same'.(M10j)***
>
> ***Everything starts in the School. As you say in the UK from the cradle into the grave. We begin as a cadet in the School where initial training take place to assess our suitability. We are then trained in a specific trade in the Schools this could be as an interpreter, surveillance, in the medical unit, as an electrician, engineer, anything we want. If we pass the exams we go into that trade. We then do our CPD in the Schools every year. Any changes in practice come through the schools. We retrain in the Schools when we get older. We might want to take an admin role and this training also comes from the schools, infact everything. Perhaps people don't realise how important they are in influencing everything we do as a RBP person. The Schools have to change is we are to move forward they are central to everything we do. Directors of the Schools- and there are a lot working on this research have influence but didn't know how to go about it' (M11j)***
>
> ***'I work in Iasi as the Director of the School, I don't get to see my colleagues in the other schools much because they are so far away, and I think the organisation like to divide us to keep control. This research will give us the change to work together***

to change the way we do things in the schools as it is very much needed'(M7j)

'I feel embarrassed as the cadet say to me in class that the technology is hopeless and they have better equipment in their homes than we have in the training schools. I wanted them to watch a film the other day and the video machine wasn't working because it was so old' (M8j)

'to me everything was working just fine in the Schools, we were happy and the atmosphere was very good in the schools. It was only when I visited other border police forces in the EU that I realised how behind we were. We didn't know. You only know what you know and we were shocked to see how modernised they were and how dated we were. I think we have alot of catching up to do and i think this is why this research has been allowed and also the amount of money from EU and frontex is to give us the chance to catch up. The other day I was asked if I needed a laptop for my job. I couldn't believe it. I have never been asked anything like this before. I noticed in Italy all the border guards were using them in the headquarters'(M13j)

K4. Innovation

Using the word 'innovation' in the context of the organisation change and development was novel to the managers. This word in Romania is normally used in respect to design and technology. A common observation noted that 'innovation' was used by the managers in respect to anything new. The managers replaced the word 'new' with 'innovative' or 'innovation' because they saw this as a 'trendy' nuance. When analyzing how it was used in the meetings and interviews the following references were found, and generally demonstrate and acknowledge the need for new ways of working individually and in teams, and to get rid of old working behaviours/ mentalities and develop a new mindset.

'The RBP needs to know about innovative ways of working'.(M1j)
'…we need to work together as a cohesive team to be innovative'(M8j)

'…and we need to get rid of old mentalities and be innovative'.(M12j)

'I consider that i am being innovative by writing this journal. We have been asked to think of innovative ways of doing things yet this research is innovative. The RBP would never have thought of doing anything like this previously (M3j).

'Anything new is innovative- it simply means new. I'm unsure why so much is said about it and why it has become so important'(M5i)

'Innovation and change are linked. We are seeking to change the organisation yet you can't change without being innovative. We have to see innovation as a way of doing things differently and inventing new practices and methods. This will very difficult for some of us, including myself as we have been doing the same things for years' (M9j)

'...I am confused and think problem solving and innovation are the same. If you have a problem you have to solve it by coming up with something new- is this innovation?'(M12i)

K5. Organisation change and development

Given that the purpose of the collaboration was to create knowledge for the RBP to achieve sustainable OCD the theme was not one of the highest scorers. The presence of other themes such as knowledge transfer, sustainability, training schools, new ideas, modernisation, curriculum and pedagogy indicated that the managers were thinking more about the transitional steps to achieving OCD. Those aspects of the organisation that needed to change before OCD could be realised. The Schools are again cited as the arena on where the ideas on OCD should be communicated.

'A cultural change can only be achieved if we know how to go about organisation change through effective development'(M5i)

'The strategic plans must take into account OCD….without this we can't achieve what is written in the strategy' (M8j)

'…and if the RBP want to bring about change then the Schools need to be modernised. The Schools are the arena for communicating the values and vision of the organisation, and we will never achieve change if we continue using outdated methods'(also in the section 'modernisation'(M13j)

The following statement was significant in revealing the RBP's managers struggle to understand OCD and how to implement it

> ***'we are desperate to know about how to implement change effectively. I have been using my own methods, sometimes these work and sometimes they fail. The organisation needs a standard way to implement change for organisation development, we are all doing different things and it doesn't work as it should link into the strategy'(M4j)***

> ***'i have tried to convince the board that we are not following logical steps to achieve the strategy. We think it will happen naturally without any effort. I put in a plan to show how my school would achieve the strategic aims to bring about change. This was basically a change plan using a critical path or gap analysis with timescales. I was told we have to change quickly and my plan was too slow. Change isn't something you can implement like this it has to be done properly and if it times takes time-it does! You can't rush change and development'(M13j)***

K6. New Curriculum

References to a new curriculum were very specific about the theories, models, tools and techniques that should be taught in the Schools. This can be cross referenced with pedagogy, but it was encouraging as the managers demonstrate identification of those Western theories/models which can be utilised in their own organisation, and have discounted others. An important factor for consideration is the role of Frontex in influencing the curriculum. Frontex is the professional body writing professional standards for border police management, but there was lack of clarity of their role, and some suspicion on how they were to fit in with what was delivered in the training schools.

> ***'I will keep some specific models or terms I have never heard of before previous to this collaboration. For example the SWOT analysis and others, and will incorporate them into the training school curriculum.'(M2j)***

> ***'We should be teaching models and techniques such as SWOT, PESTLE,***

Gap analysis, cultural web, and models of change to help development the organisation in the curriculum. Some models are not appropriate to our culture but these fit'(M12j)

'The RBP curriculum should start with the basics, such as communication, motivation and leadership theory'(M4j)

'I will introduce role play and case study activity to the training School in Iasi, it will keep students motivated and take into account different learning styles' (M7i)

'when frontex get involved they will be delivering a new curriculum and my role will be defunct' (M3j)

'A lot is said about Frontex and I am worried about the new border police curriculum they instructing us to do. We have to know about the affective domain and behaviours. Nobody cared about this before now it is part of a new curriculum' (M11j)

The following statements were selected as an illustration that three managers thought models and theories alone are not the answer, but the application was more important.

'….you came along with models theories and details on how to apply them in practice in our organisation, that was a very important role and we should do this in the curriculum, we don't apply theory topractice'.(M8j)

'We have to learn about the learning process as part of the curriculum' (M13j)

'…and the curriculum should contain, and talk about modern theorists' (M9j)

<u>K7. Developing ideas</u>

This was referred to eighty two times by nine managers. Whilst it was ranked seventh in the list of themes managers mentioned it in single sentences rather than

significant pieces of text. It was a theme the managers showed frustration over as seen below but did not articulate very well why this was the case. One statement clearly identifies a need for the organisation to generate, share and integrate ideas;

> ***'We need to establish a process of integration of new idea as we don't do this'.(M1j)***

> ***'..the RBP should offer incentives to those who come up with new ideas. My friend works for the traffic police and they have a scheme where new ideas are put into a box. Whoever comes up with the best idea wins a prize each month. Why don't the RBP do something like this. I'm sure lots of people would get involved' (M3j)***

> ***'I develop my ideas and they are ignored'(M14i)***

> ***'In the past developing ideas was dangerous and not seen as something we should do, but now we should be listened to' (M12j)***

My role in the process of collaborative co-inquiry was to enable and encourage critical reflective practice for generating new ideas and creating new knowledge. This was referred to in the statements;

> ***'…we were reflecting and we were able to share new ideas, new thoughts with colleagues'. (M7J)***

> ***'It gave us an opportunity to network, where you feel you can share your knowledge with colleagues to develop new ideas'.(M1j)***

> ***'I was pleased when I presented Janet with my ideas. I wouldn't normally talk about them to anyone but I felt it was a safe environment and I was encouraged' (M8j)***

Other relevant statements claimed;

> ***'There were new ideas transferred to me', 'I made the decision to develop new ideas and accept new ideas'.(M4j)***

> ***'...there are no channels for new ideas. I could develop new ideas but they***

have nowhere to go' (M14j)

'....where could I express my developed ideas to the organisation' (M8j)

'....we have a lot of new ideas but in our organisation you have to respect some orders, you can't come with radical ideas'.(M1i)

The statements illustrate how traditionally managers in the RBP were given commands and acted upon them. Traditionally they were not paid to think, reflect, question, or develop new ideas, and for some managers that legacy remained. A wider issue was exposed in this theme as the statements refer to the organisation's lack of systems and processes for facilitation of developing new ideas.

K8. Thinking space

The notion of reflection, and reflective practice were new concepts to the Romanian managers at the start of the research. The methodology chapter details the process of enabling the RBP managers to become critical reflective practitioners and the barriers in attempting to achieve this. As the research progressed statements reveal the appreciation of 'reflective space', consistent with Mintzberg's (1973) original conception of developing skills of introspection, and further developed by Locke (2005), Orland-Barak (2005), and Ulrich and Reynolds (2010). With time the mangers were able to change their mind set and embraced the concept. As it was something they had not previously experienced it took time to adopt the new ways of thinking. The value and necessity of 'thinking time' (or reflective space) is acknowledged in the following statements

Given that the managers were engaging in the process of critical reflection it is surprising that this theme did not have more significance. The theme had many references but statements reveal it is not a priority. Whist they acknowledge the importance they did not see it has something of an imperative for the organisation.

'Thinking time is important but not a priority' (M6j)

We called it 'thinking space' at the start- it then became the 'reflective space'(M3j)

' I want to develop my reflective capabilities and need time and space to do this' (M9j)

'...i feel a bit special having this opportunity to reflect and have space to think about my own development and the organisation's development. I'm thinking about myself more than I have before. Such things as my prejudices and what I want to do in the future. Do I want to say with the RBP or move into something else? The thinking time has given me the opportunity to think about what to do when I retire as I might take early retirement and get my pension early. This is something you need thinking space for' (M11j)

The reflective capabilities of the managers were developed over time, each reflecting in different ways depending on age, experience and time with the RBP. The findings are consistent with the claims in the literature that reflective capability is closely related to experiences and analytical reflection is more prevalent with age (Ross 1989). From the finding the claim can be made that reflective capability can be actively encouraged and in the form of using a journal.

K9.Modernisation

The references to modernisation were all in relation to the Training Schools namely classroom methods, pedagogy, the curriculum, assessment, materials, a whole host of things including the equipment and the layout of the classrooms. This revealed that if new knowledge was utilised to bring about organisational change then urgent action was required in this area.

'The training Schools need to be modernised with new methods and techniques of teaching. I visited a Police School in Spain two months ago and I was embarrassed at the facilities we have in comparison'(M10j)

'All aspects of the Schools need to be modernised, not only in the border police, but also the marine police, and national police in Romania. None of them have this kind of training in the field. When we go on an exchange visits it makes me realise how outdated our equipment is, and this is a pity because we have a young force and can

be only as good as our equipment'(M3j)

'…if the RBP want to bring about change then the Schools need to be modernised. The Schools are the arena for communicating the values and vision of the organisation, and we will never achieve change if we continue using outdated methods'.(M7j)

However, three managers commented on the need to modernise thinking generally, and focused on the management who should act as role models in this aspect.

'The purpose of the original program was to modernise peoples thinking to do important jobs in the training domain, this was very good for the Directors of the School. They should be spreading the word to others, and trying to get us all to think and work in modern ways'.(M7j)

Unfortunately, I have been afraid to express my views on modernisation. It is ridiculous really. As a member of the senior management team you wouldn't think I would behave this way. In the past any ideas were bad ideas unless they came from the top' (M3i)

We have some very important challenges ahead we stand to decline if we don't modernise' (M2j)

This last statement demonstrated the desperate need for a culture change, requiring changed behaviours, and thinking in a more liberating culture, where new ideas and 'modern' methods of working can be expressed without reprisal. This was shown further by the comment;

'***It is ridiculous that I am still wearing a uniform for every activity, whether formal or informal. I know that some border police schools staff can dress in suits. I don't understand why the RBP have to wear uniforms for everything. The Spanish border guard are wearing casual clothes for everyday things, and I was embarrassed to turn up in a uniform- we are living in an ancient time in Romania'(M10i)***

<u>K10. Developing research</u>

In total sixty two comments referred to developing research. Half of the references were in respect to a continued working relationship with the University of Wolverhampton (the researcher)***;***

> ***'we need to find ways of working collaboratively on research', and we need to develop research together'.(M11j)***
>
> ***'we should have an ongoing dialogue with the researcher, it can't stop just like that- we need to keep going and develop research and new research ideas(M11i,M14j)***
>
> ***'.....unless we engage in research we have no hope..... (M14j)***
>
> ***'Research is the key to all successful organisations. It has to be part of the***
> ***Culture and not something done to investigate a concern or issue in the Border Police. I have a colleague working in the Polish Border Guard and he is always referring to the research they are doing. I can't say the same of my own organisation'(M3i)***
>
> ***'The organisation think we do research, but it is only sending a few questionnaires to staff and then publishing the results- this is not real research. Real research is working collaboratively with other border guard forces, or frontex and working with them to get research published in a world journal, and not only Frontiera (the RBP Magazine)'(M6j)***
>
> ***'...and I hope we can continue to do research with Janet'(M1i)***
>
> ***'We now have a link with Wolverhampton University this should offer an ideal opportunity for further research. Those with a PhD at the RBP should be collaborating with PhD professors at the UoW to work on important matters about the future of policing in the EU. The implications of a Schengen region would be an idea area for research'(M3j)***

Other comments referred to internal developments of research, and the lack of focus on research**,** and an acknowledgement of its importance for a developing organisation**.** Two notable outstanding comments confirming this were made;

'it is research that will get the organisation recognised on the world arena'(M6j)

'the organisation doesn't encourage research – we should be attending conferences and promoting what we do, after all we are experts in the field of border management'(M5j)

K11. Pedagogical methods

The traditional pedagogical methods used at the RBP training Schools were a concern for the managers, since having seen the modern techniques used in the original training programme. A didactic approach to classroom teaching still existed in the training schools. The managers had never been exposed to the classroom methods of group work, case studies, games or role play. There were a plethora of statements calling for specific classroom activities, and different examples of engaging RBP trainees in the class. The statements also highlighted the divide in ideas between those managers with transmission-based approaches in the classroom and those where beliefs were based on constructivist principles.

There was a problem in wanting to have new pedagogical methods and the know-how to incorporate them.

'I am suspicious of new methods in the classroom; I don't think they will work with Border Police cadets who need discipline' (M7j)

'I want to try new classroom techniques but what if they are unsuccessful. I will feel ashamed and stupid in front of my colleagues. I'm not totally sure how to go about implementing new teaching methods and would need help. (M14j)

'I want to know the art of good teaching, to be able to incorporate role plays, group work and classroom games as was demonstrated to us'(M2j)

'I will never forget the motivation game consisting of role play. This is what pedagogy is, using different methods in the classroom. It would be good not to use the blackboard for change'.(M10j)

'When I was on the University course at Wolverhampton the most enjoyable aspect was working in my group. I had never experienced working with peers before in an academic context'. (M14j)

…. 'and we need our staff to engage with the students more in different pedagogical contexts'.(M14j)

'It would be better for the organisation if we could use computers in the classroom and for open learning methods. The classroom is the same old methods and students expect more with new technology, and the computer age'.(M10j)

The views given in this section represent the development of a link between the subject knowledge and the pedagogic reasoning of the managers. It points to the highly contextualised nature of the managers' knowledge, and illustrates how in many cases they are ready and prepared to try something new in the classroom, but also have apprehensions.

K12. Changing methods of working in the Schools

This was one of the lowest scoring themes, but all managers commented that it was needed, and then went on to elaborate further by citing how and which aspects needed to be changed such as pedagogy, training systems , and the curriculum. In the interview they did not give justification to this. It was more of a general statement for the need to change rather than pointing to anything specific.

'We can't survive without change – we will die if we don't adapt'.(M5j)

'Change is essential for all organisations. It is something you have to do. For example we can't continue to use old equipment and methods of working. We have to have the knowledge of the theory and practice of change'.(M2j)

'our training Schools are the key to the future but we can't continue to be teaching using the old methods. We are writing on boards with chalk and when I go elsewhere in Europe I feel embarrassed about this. We have to change this' (M9j)

'I have been training using classroom methods- no activities as I have seen done in other places. I want to change and update my skills and knowledge'.
(M4j)

'It is ridiculous to think that I am still using a projector in my classroom and have all my session done this way. I should have thought we should be using powerpoint everyone else does. We are behind with developments and seriously need to think about change' (M9j)

'The curriculum has remained unchanged for years, ok we have some new techniques and equipment for detecting smugglers and fake pass boards but basically I should look ahead and start to think about what is happening in Frontex. I have even thought to apply for jobs at Frontex as they are ahead of the profession. They are designing new standards for border guards and are constantly changing things to meet the needs of the profession. The training schools should be listening to Frontex and basing the future curriculum on what they developing'. (M1j)

K13. Knowledge Sharing

There were references related directly to the research process. Managers' statements about knowledge were captured in the

'We created a site of knowledge sharing and new knowledge was created'(M4j)

'…..in the initial stage for sure you have a high percentage of direct knowledge transfer, then you start to work things out for yourself, by doing this you create your own ways of doing thing and you new knowledge is created' (this is repeated in the section 'knowledge

transfer).(M10j)

'The use of the journals to capture our thoughts and feeling and share this knowledge with colleagues is ingenious' (M4j)

'What we need is a strong coordination of this function across the Schools. Where we can come together and share our research ideas to take the organisation forward' (M6j)

The following statement revealed how one of the managers felt about the process at the start of the research.

'I was hungry for new knowledge and a little frightened that I might not manage to contribute to the knowledge building process, but it's about being honest and spontaneous to questions about the organisation, and also being frank about how it can change'(M6i/q/j)

Swan and Scarborough (2001: 914) argue, these perspectives have coalesced around the functionalist concern of knowledge, and are a critical resource and source of sustainable advantage, to be managed and shared more effectively. In other words the idea of knowledge management and knowledge sharing builds on a widespread but rather peculiar understanding of the nature of knowledge. Knowledge is widely treated as a functional resource, representing a 'truth' on organisational subject matter and/or a set of principles or techniques for dealing with organisational systems and procedures.

K14. Sustainability

This theme is intrinsically linked to the OCD theme and use of the word 'change' and 'sustainable' were used interchangeably. The quotes taken from the journal entries strongly resonate the view that knowledge is seen as representing the most important asset organisations possess and its creation, dissemination and application as a source of sustainable advantage is emphasised (Zack, 1999, Iles *et al*., 2004).

'The RBP needs to be able to work out its own problems and find sustainable solutions.....

'We have to be a sustainable organisation to survive'(M6j)

'…we can't rely on consultants all the time through PHARE funding. There comes a point when you have to start being sustainable and working things out for yourself.'(M9j)

'I've heard alot about sustainability and its link to change. The word means something different in Romania- it is concerned with green issues but i suppose in the organisation context it is also about maintaining and survival'(M1j)

Once the main themes were identified and analysed data was gathered together under descriptive codes or thematic ideas, hence the tree nodes emerged. Following on from this process it was possible to begin coding again, to identify sub-themes. This was a meticulous task and the purpose of this stage of analysis is to ensure that the theoretical ideas which have emerged in the first round of Nvivo coding can be systematically evidenced in the data, thus addressing the validity of the research results. There were fifty four sub-themes identified ranging from one to twenty five references. The main themes identified gave a good basis for moving onto phase two of the research.

Creating new knowledge is now considered to be an achievable concept for most organisations, this has increasingly been referred to as 'knowledge enabling' Von Krogh, Ichijo, Nonaka 2000). This is an overall set of organisational activities that 'positively affect knowledge creation—and will emphasize throughout enabling knowledge creation why such a concept can help managers grapple with the real difficulties involved in building knowledge'. Increasingly the challenge for an organisation is how to validate and embed new knowledge. After reviewing the themes with the managers an obvious understanding came through an ordinary but striking occurrence of the themes and the subsequent sub-themes. Discussion of the emergent main themes with the managers gave a common understanding of what was needed for phase two. An analysis of the themes marked a turning point in the research. After much deliberation a consensus was reached, that the training schools held the key to communicating and embedding new knowledge. What was

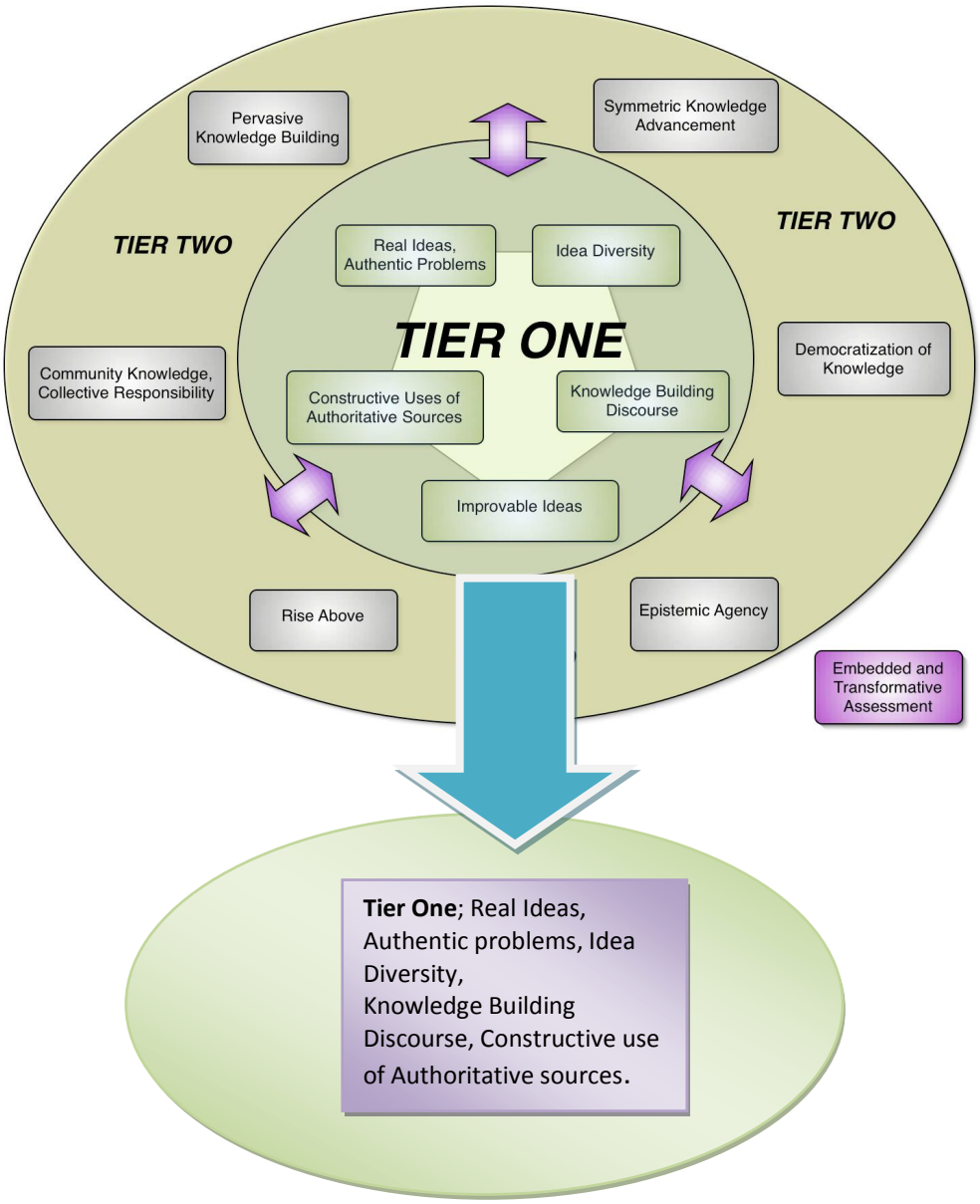
required for validity of the findings in phase one was further research in the Schools, and to eventually work together on an appropriate curriculum of 'new knowledge' to enable the core values of the organisation to be delivered to all its employees using modern classroom pedagogical techniques, as yet not embedded. Phase one research started with a blank canvass and has concluded with the main themes on which to concentrate for further development. What is more remarkable is that at the start of the research the researcher and RBP manager had no idea what would be the main focal point for the convergence of the research findings.

6.7 Conclusion and Knowledge Building Principles

The theoretical premise on which knowledge was created with the RBP corresponded strongly to the constructivist ideas of Bereiter and Scardamalia. This research has been identified as situated within their theory of KB. Other KB theories presented in chapter two such as Amibiles' componential model, and Engestrom's expansive learning cycle were rejected on the basis they were cyclical, intuitive and one dimensional.

The cyclical nature of these ideas does not take into account progression, rather success or an impasse creates an endpoint, with no emphasis on improvable ideas.
As for Bereiter and Scardamalia there is no real end point but the ideas generated are a starting point to be continuously improved. The ideas are real authentic problems and based on an external objective (in this case improvable change for EU accession), but knowledge generated by internal managers.

Figure 6.5 Knowledge Building Principles; Tier one



Source :Courtesy of ChrisTeplovs (2004)

The problem as perceived with the theories of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) is the presumption that a problem has already been identified and presented to a work group. Their model identified a continuum from tacit to explicit knowledge after a creative process. The idea for this research was not to be inhibited by presenting a specific problem and the concept of organisation change was deliberately presented as a broad area to work on. The type of explicit knowledge generated by the Nonaka and Takaeuchi model was deemed inappropriate for this research.

Taking Bereiter and Scardamalia's KBC principles, first presented in chapter one, the findings of the KB process with the managers concur or 'fit' their theoretical model,

and demonstrate that the first research question of '*How do Geppert and Clark's five factor framework, and Bereiter and Scardamalia* knowledge building principles help *facilitate the creation of new knowledge in the RBP?' have been met.* Tier one principles are shown in Figure 6.5 and were demonstrated by the managers in phase one of the KB process as follows. Tier two of this theory will be applied and discussed in chapter 7.

1. ***Real ideas, authentic problems***; the ideas generated by the managers were real world, work place problems, relevant to them and not invented solely for the purpose of the research.
2. ***Idea diversity***; everyone was free to express their thoughts and ideas individually through the use of their journals to enable a diversity of ideas. This avoided the notion of 'groupthink' in the early stages and prevented all managers having the same journal entries.
3. ***Knowledge Building Discourse*;** this was in a live setting in the writing of a journal but also seen in the meetings , and it is through this discourse that ideas are generated and further research identified
4. ***Improvable ideas***; one of the objectives of the research was to facilitate a process of generating knowledge to help improve the organisation. The managers identified those areas of the organisation needing much improvement.
5. ***Constructive use of Authoritative Sources***; the generated knowledge was 'tested' against current best knowledge in the organisation and was carried out in the validation chapter.

This chapter has presented the findings of the reflective capabilities of a group of Romanian Border Police (RBP) Managers to reveal how they have created knowledge for organisational change and development in preparation for EU accession, through the use of journals and through collaborative co-inquiry techniques. Simultaneously a framework for facilitation emerged using the original research of Geppert and Clark (2002) as a foundation for the ideas, and moves away from traditional models of knowledge transfer to further develop the changing dimensions of training interventions in the EE as outlined by Michaelova and

Hollinshead (2001). The theoretical premise on which the knowledge was created has also been identified as those purported by Bereiter and Scardemalia through their knowledge building principles. This research departs from the claims of existing literature on the effectiveness of knowledge transfer from the West to Eastern Europe, and takes a more radical view on how collaborative co-inquiry with partners can bring about knowledge creation as a more sustainable and significant approach for organisational change. Within the knowledge management literature there is the recognition that the ability to successfully transfer knowledge across borders, that is across cultures, consistently falls short of expectation (Clark and Geppert, 2002; Geppert and Clark 2003; Holden, 2001, 2002, Holden *et al*., 2004; Iles *et al*., 2004). This research approaches the development of the RBP from a different perspective and has enabled the managers to discover for themselves the knowledge needed to develop.

The evidence presented in this chapter has demonstrated that through well-planned research an appropriate framework for facilitating the creation of new knowledge can be achieved. This has been done through the RBP knowledge-building community by means of collaborative co-inquiry, and has assisted in generating knowledge. This chapter has also established how a knowledge-building community has been operationalised, and has presented new knowledge created resulting in the fourteen themes. The fourteen themes are used to inform the research carried out in phase two.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Phase Two; A Model of Validation and Practical Implementation

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will present the findings of phase two to ascertain whether the themes elicited in phase one are true and certain. True in the sense that research findings accurately reflect the situation, and certain in the sense that research findings are supported by the evidence.

The purpose of this phase was to continue data collection by carrying out an assessment of the RBP Training schools using questionnaires and interviews, present the results of an elaboration stage by working with managers to develop a new curriculum, and embed new knowledge in the training schools. Phase one and two methods served to triangulate the data collected. Triangulation is a powerful technique that facilitates validation of data through cross verification from more than two sources and gives a more detailed and balanced picture of the situation (Denzin 2006). In keeping with the view of Patton (2002) it would be reckless to adopt the common misconception that the goal of triangulation is to arrive at consistency across data sources or approaches. In fact such inconsistencies may be likely given the relative strengths of different approaches. In Patton's view, these inconsistencies should not be seen as weakening the evidence, but should be viewed as an opportunity to uncover deeper meaning in the data.

7.2 Phase Two

The Key themes in phase one were elicited through the use of interviews and journal records produced by the managers. The identification of the themes constituted new knowledge in order to develop the organisation. Knowledge here is also seen as needed 'know how', an experience, a set of insights, and procedures believed to be valid that guide thoughts and behaviours and communication (Rowley 2007), but also it is knowledge that has been created in context, 'information made explicit to allow communication with other, or how people line different pieces of information together so they can be applied in context' (Desouza

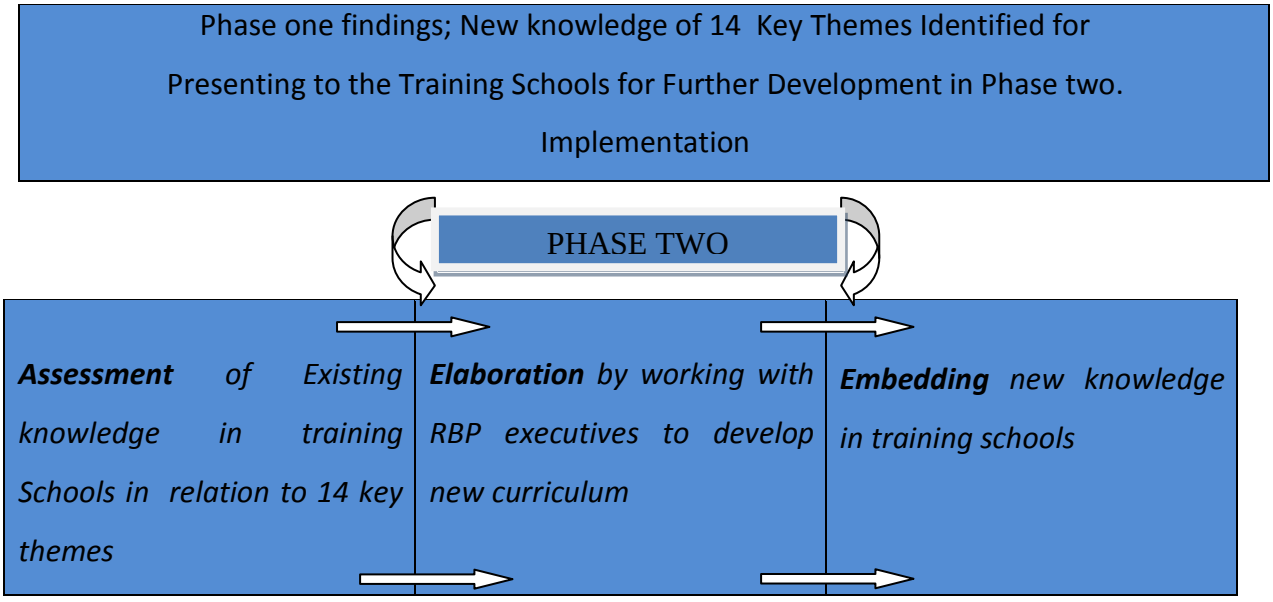
2007). Hence 'new knowledge' in this research context are those organisational aspects that needed to change in the RBP to bring about development.

The following assertions are deduced from the findings in phase one:

1. The Training Schools are outdated in systems, methods of teaching (pedagogy), assessment, curriculum, and physical environment (buildings, classrooms, equipment)
2. The Training Schools are the main vehicle for inducting new employees to the organization, communicating the strategy and management style, mission, cultural values, and ongoing CPD of all organisation members
3. The Training Schools shape the culture of the organisation. Organisational success is driven by the Schools and by what is taught in the Schools.

The following section will present the findings of phase two in three stages as presented in figure 7.1. The three stages are the assessment stage, elaboration stage and embedding stage.

Figure 7.1 Phase Two Research



Source: Author derived

7.3 Assessment Stage

The first stage of phase two was the 'assessment stage' (or fact finding stage as explained in Chapter five) carrying out an organisation-wide assessment of RBP Training Schools with a focus on a questionnaire and follow up interview of 35 training school personnel. The fourteen themes found in phase one were introduced in the questionnaire to the training school personnel. The purpose of introducing the themes were to elicit data that could later be compared with the finding in phase one, examine the themes common to both and take the new knowledge forward to the elaboration stage To recap, there are seven Training Schools in RBP as explained in chapter three, located at Guirgu, Iasi, Constanta, Timisoara, Drobeta Severin (Orshova), Oradea, and Bucharest. Each School delivers foundation training and specialised CPD courses leading to degrees and masters level qualification. CPD courses consist of every aspect of border management from languages, forgery identification, forensics, medical courses, through to psychology qualifications. To identify the major strategic business needs of the seven Regional Training Centres (RTCs), and map them to the findings in phase one, the managers continued to work with the researcher to assist with the phase two research process. The managers acted as a conduit for introducing the researcher and the research to the Schools, assisting in presenting an overview of the research carried out in phase one, but not revealing the findings. The purpose of the overview given was to ensure that personnel in the Schools were comfortable with the motives of the research and were not suspicious of it as a means for more sinister purposes such as redundancies. The interviews achieved the following:

(i) Identified relevant information concerning the themes, and to validate the need for change in those areas already identified in phase one, and how these can be further developed.

(ii) Identified gaps not recorded in phase one and also how this can help with improving the performance requirements of key positions within each Regional Training Centre (RTC).

(iii) Identified the forces and factors, both within and outside the control of the Head of the RTC, that will either support or challenge the accomplishment of the implementation of new knowledge including desired changes and

improvements in performance that will be required for optimal success of the RBP OCD.

At the end of the 'assessment' stage the data collected was categorised in eight main themes through a process of coding. The themes are seen in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2 Main Themes

K6 Curriculum design
Review
K11 Pedagogical methods
Assessment issues
Feedback
Evaluation
Documentation used in Schools
K10 Developing Research
K13 Sharing Knowledge

Source:Author Derived

The data collected from the questionnaires after coding was mapped against the fourteen themes from phase one. Figure 7.2 emphasises four dominant themes which also featured in phase one findings; K6 Curriculum Design, K10 Developing Research, K11 Pedagogical methods, and K13 Knowledge Sharing and were of major significance. Other dominant themes found in phase two were assessment, feedback, review, evaluation and documentation. These are intrinsically linked to the theme of K6 Curriculum Design and K11 Pedagogical methods. The following themes were also mentioned but were expressed in general terms and referred to curriculum and/or pedagogy. These were; K2 Training system, K3 Training Schools, K12 Changing methods of working in Schools. The mapping exercise demonstrated that seven of the fourteen original themes were confirmed. Hence, seven of the original themes were also common to phase two.

Figure 7.3 illustrates the number of references made to the themes either through the questionnaire (Q) or through the interview (I). 'New curriculum' ranked as the

highest scoring theme with 35 references coming from the questionnaire and 22 references in the interview. 'Pedagogical methods' were the second highest scoring themes with 34 references in the questionnaire and 19 in the interview. These were evidently most significant for the RBP training schools.

Figure 7.3 Number of References to themes in phase one.

Themes identified in Phase One	Number of references in questionnaires and interviews made by training School personnel in phase two	
	Q	I
New Knowledge (knowledge creation)	**2**	**6**
Training system	**15**	**7**
Training Schools	**18**	**19**
***Pedagogical methods**	**34**	**19**
Organisation change and development	**6**	**9**
***New Curriculum**	**35**	**22**
Developing ideas	**0**	**1**
Thinking space	**0**	**0**
Modernisation	**5**	**2**
***Developing research**	**28**	**19**
Changing methods of working in the Schools	**8**	**5**
***Knowledge Sharing**	**19**	**18**
Sustainability	**0**	**1**
Innovation	**5**	**0**

*Dominant common themes identified from phase one and two

The next section presents the qualitative findings from the questionnaire and the interviews, and back up qualitative statements made in phase one. The statements are a representative sample highlighting some of the main issues.

CURRICULUM DESIGN (K6)

There were tensions exposed in the interviews about writing a curriculum, what this should look like and how to go about it. Writing objectives and behavioural objectives had not featured in any previous curriculum design. There was no standardisation; hence different approaches had emerged across the schools. This

was aligned to the concerns about pedagogy, and limited the opportunities for introducing something new when designing the curriculum. The curriculum was consequently very traditional and classroom based focussing on the outdated methods of border policing. Frequent reference was made to Frontex and their role in the development of a curriculum for EU Border guards. This was an unknown and a concern. The impression given from the Schools was that there would be little point in looking at curriculum content and improvements as eventually this would be dictated by Frontex, but irrespective of Frontex there was a common thought that certain topics should be taught in the curriculum for new cadets as seen from the statements. Curriculum review was a concern as there was no standardisation of this function. This would impact on quality assurance.

'No attention to diversity and limited attention to human rights as being embedded in the content of the curriculum (P20q) .

'Some uncertainty about what triggers a new course/curriculum-some common understanding required'(P7q)

'The RBP curriculum should start with such topics as communication, motivation and management/ leadership theory'(P11q)

'I have a concern that I'm never asked to contribute to the curriculum' (P6i)

'Everyone does their own thing – no coordination of what we do with what is needed' (P6i)

'when frontex get involved they will be designing a new curriculum and my role will be to follow their instruction'(P17q)

'....a lot is said about Frontex and I am worried about the new border police curriculum they instructing us to do. Writing learning objectives is new. Nobody cared about this before now it is part of a new curriculum' (P14q)

'...the overall problem is with meeting the needs of the EU. The curriculum is written with the RBP in mind, we need to look wider to the FRONTEX standard sand what is required to be a European Border Guard. There are no overall strategic plans for us to completely change the existing curriculum to modernise it. Everything we do a knee jerk response rather than a deliberate attempt at making it more relevant and effective' (P10i)

'Do we know how to write a curriculum'? Do we know how to write behavioural objects?(P19q)

Curriculum Review

'Informal reviews of the curriculum are undertaken, but do not feed into any formal structure or processes'(P3q)

'Infrequent reviews of the curriculum are conducted – in some disciplines there hasn't been a review for years'.(P8q)

'No records of reviews Lack of evidence of the review process and no uniform approach to this, other than in Oradea where the QA committee does it all'(P28q)

'Different practice taking place across the schools. Coordination is needed. A quality department is needed at the central office in Bucharest to ensure the same quality practices are taking place'.(P29q)

In phase one references made to a new curriculum were very specific about the theories, models, tools and techniques that should be taught in the Schools. This was encouraging as the managers identified those Western theories/models which can be utilised in their own organisation, and have discounted others. Having had experience of training courses in the UK and Europe the managers were knowledgeable about different classroom techniques, but their practice exposed a lack of knowledge on implementation of different pedagogical strategies in the RBP curriculum. This extended to classroom equipment and concurs with statements

made about pedagogy in phase one. One criticism of the schools was the heavy reliance on tradition classroom lectures, and lacking in a variety of delivery methods. The same was said of assessment methods. They tended to concentrate on traditional methods of testing or exams. There were very little assessments based on assignments, and no group work assessments.

Feedback was at the discretion of the professors and given verbally in the main. Written feedback was rare. Evaluation was something done at the end of a course. There were no formative evaluations.

Course documentation was all in paper format and was very detailed. Lesson plans were too detailed and concentrated on the delivery for every 5 minutes accountable. These were commented on as too detailed and difficult to follow especially when cover was needed.

PEDAGOGICAL METHODS (K11)

The qualitative statements presented under 'Pedagogical Methods' illustrate, as a typical example, that throughout the research a common and reoccurring theme has been the learning and teaching strategies used in the Schools. The RBP managers and training school personnel were aware of their antiquated methods used in the classroom (all didactic). Having travelled to other parts of Europe and observed the scope and variety of methods the staff were anxious as a newly accessed EU country to modernise their Schools and teaching techniques.

> ***'There is still a heavy reliance on lectures. There is an awareness of pedagogical methods but we've not always had chance to use them'.(P17q)***
>
> ***'Limited resources mean that there is a limit to the type of lessons offered e.g. no films or IT.(P30q)***
>
> ***'Content of sessions limited by lack of facilities – computer equipment limited'(P30i)***

'The physical environment does not allow for group work breakout rooms. They are very traditional and old fashioned classrooms'.(P14q)

'We should be incorporating a range of assessment methods and ways of facilitating this. Observations, group presentations and journal are new to us all and we would benefit from some of these assessment methods in the classroom'.(P22i)

'We teach and test outcomes using exams or test, very simple methods but with difficult subjects, and not taking into account learning styles'.(P20q)

'We need to maintain discipline and I'm not sure you can do this with different classroom methods' (P6q)

'..we desperately need to try new methods in the classroom, otherwise we will fail as a border agency' (P17q)

'I want to know the art of good teaching,(P13q)

'incorporate role plays, group work and classroom games' (P9q)

ASSESSMENT

'Didn't always have formal moderation and not always sure of the point of this' (P5q)

'Assessment is all about formal 'knowledge'(P1i)

'Majority assessment seemed to be written, exams and tests and often MCQ (Giurgiu)' (P9q)

'Little self assessment of trainees' (P32q)

'I Thought my assessment would be fair and consistent without any criteria'.(P16i)

'Weighting of tariffs geared towards exam' (P17q)

'Danger that the range statements are not tested where competence is used'.(P16q)

'No evidence of TWI task breakdown with the practical training'. (P6q)

FEEDBACK

'...there is limited individual feedback'(P22q)

'Feedback is often not written. We will tell the group generally where they are going wrong or what needs to improve. I prefer to do this as a collective rather than pick out individuals. If you address general comments to the group then they are all aware it applies to them and they all need to act on it'. (P31i)

'Practice of giving feedback varies across Schools; people use different forms and methods. I have designed a form for giving written feedback and I know several others are using it, but it's not official' (P11q)

'Didn't see evidence of feedback from other cohort analysis' (P29q)

EVALUATION

'There is only brief evaluation of the whole programme and the learning of students'. (P16q)

'No evidence of evaluation' (P15q)

'Evaluation is a summative event at the end of a course. Tutors do what they think is right when it comes to evaluation. There are no official documents or pointers to tell us what we need to do in constructing a feedback opportunity. Also if we do have feedback what do we do with it, file it in a cupboard?' (P31i)

DOCUMENTATION

> ***'Lesson plans might be too detailed (timings to the minute)'. (P3q)***
>
> ***' This can mean lack of flexibility in the lesson and responding to varying needs of trainees'(P18i)***
>
> ***'No standard documents for teaching, block layout tend to be in the curriculum documents' (P23q)***

DEVELOPING RESEARCH (K10)

Most of the comments strongly concurred with those statements made about research in phase one, and referred mainly to internal developments. There was a real concern for the lack of focus on research, and an acknowledgement of its importance for a developing organisation. This was a particular concern for the personnel in the training schools who are academics and research should be something they are engaged in as part of their professional practice Notable outstanding comments were as follows;

> ***'There are not any opportunities for research, it's never mentioned'(P4q)***
>
> ***'No research collaboration or bid writing for research projects'(P4q)***
>
> '***No evidence exists of a formalised system for constructing continuous professional development plans. We do not have appraisals and in consequence my line manager does not know what I want to do in the research area. I have some innovative ideas concerning research but he is not interested. CPD incorporating research plans should be part of an effective appraisal system'. (P10i)***
>
> ***'.. research should be an ongoing process, unless we engage in research we can't move forward (P17q)***

'Research is essential to all successful organisations. Reading books on organisation theory we are told it has to be embedded into the culture for competitive advantage. This should also include individuals who want to do their own research in the organisation'(P8i)

'Research should be encouraged, rather than seen as something to be suspicious of. I think that they are worried research might uncover something we shouldn't know, but we have to be transparent' (P28i)

'I wanted to do a PhD but was told I couldn't have the time to do it. I am a professor with a masters degree but it would have been good to consolidate my knowledge with as a doctor. I will retire in a few years and it's too late for me but I hope in the future we can develop research and look at action plans for doing this'(P6i)

'Asking people to complete a satisfaction questionnaire, or get their views through a questionnaire is not real research' (P7q)

'We should be setting up research groups with other border police and find out what research we can do collaboratively'. (P9q)

We should be taking advantage of the many opportunities to write EU research bids. (P24q)

***SHARING KNOWLEDGE (*K13)**

As with phase one the comments highlight a lack of opportunities for sharing knowledge in the organisation. The recommendations to follow would be to ensure the organisation was aware of the concern and draw up actions to bring about change, and to further assist by suggesting possible ways of implementing enabling structures.

'There is no framework for networking giving opportunity for sharing knowledge'(P4q)

'Culture of sharing knowledge needs to be fostered'(P24q)

'Knowledge sharing with other Border Police forces should be in place'(P31q)

'As the RBP has no research culture the opportunity for knowledge sharing doesn't exist, the two are connected. If a research culture was put in place chance to share knowledge would follow on'. (P21i)

'...no formal structure for this activity. (P14q)

'I am frustrated as we don't share knowledge- we use each other's materials which might be viewed as sharing knowledge. This isn't the same as having a deep discussion about what has worked for us in the classroom and any new ideas we might have'. (P28i)

OTHER

'Offering of courses depends on expertise of individuals in Schools(P13q)

Lack of confidence of trainers, want confirmation that they are doing the 'right' thing'(P17q)

' We don't give sufficient breaks and therefore the trainees shut down and stop listening'(P4q)

'The School- It is too hot in the summer and too cold in the winter, not conducive to learning' (P15q)

The inventory of pedagogical strategies introduced to the training school personnel in the next section (Table 7.1) came after the findings of the phase questionnaires and offers a list of modern learning and teaching methods (Lowman, 1996, Duckett and Tatarkowski, 2005, Ginnis, 2005). Literature on pedagogy claim it is commonly known that different classroom methods and styles of delivery accelerate and influence learning (Duckett and Tatarkowski, 2005), and for this reason the RBP needed to adopt and integrate preferred styles to keep abreast of pedagogic nuances. The list in Table 7.1 enabled the RBP to review those methods currently employed and those not used or familiar to them. The table lists the methods

asking the professors to indicate 'yes' or 'no' if used and to comment in what situation if the response was 'yes'.

Table 7.1 ***Learning and Teaching Methods***

Method	***Tick***	***Comment –***
Lecture	N/Y	20 minutes maximum, seldom these days. Not relevant for languages.
Seminar	Y	After each session
Discussions in class	Y	
Small group discussion/tutorial	Y	Certain topics, e.g. document filing. Used to help forming/group cohesion.
One/one tutorial	Y	Especially when there are problems
Case studies	Y	Very much-written by tutor. Focus on case studies written by staff based on reality.
Demonstrations	Y	
Practical exercises	Y	Inside and outside, Serious crimes-offences. Especially competences. At cross points and airports.
Individual/Group activities	Y	
Workshops	N	
Role play simulations	N	In operation field. All the time
Videos/films	N/Y	Partly for forensic. All the time
Student sharing	N/Y	(Oradea). Proposed but not yet implemented(Timisoara)
Games	N	
Interactive IT packages	Y	Criminal investigations. New IT package for Russian. Changes of rules –BP and EU
Work experience placement	N	Seldom
Independent study	Y	
AN other	Y	Team teaching and visits. Brainstorming

Assessment Methods

Method	***Tick***	***Comment*** *Discuss whether summative or formative*

Closed book exams	Y	
Open book exams	N	Officers lesson
Short Knowledge tests	Y	
MCQ	Y/N	Not often. This can confuse in language training
Essays assignments	Y	For some competences
Informal knowledge checks/questions	Y	
Practical Application		
Practical assignments, eg design/delivery demonstration which are observed by assessor against criteria	Y	
Ditto plus reflective report by student	Y/N	
Work based project	N	Groups of 3/4 students
- theory put into practice which are assessed by criteria	Y	
Personal development journals, diaries, learning logs	Y/N	From the beginning (Oradea) Task of psychologist-anonymous
Critical work based reviews (critique of practice against theory)	Y/N	
Group Assignments		
Small group work (observed)	Y	Task set and marked –(max 5 students)
Work based simulations	Y/N	
Scenario based role plays	Y	
Peer assessment	N	Disbanded due to student conflict
Tutor Assessment in context	Y	
Witnesses testimony	N/Y	In judicial area. From field tutor
Personal statements from trainee	Y/N	Anonymous
Product evidence of competence eg case file	N	List of words kept in folders
Observation evidence compiled by assessor	N	

Questions answering competence set by assessor	Y	Oral response
Professional discussions	Y	

The table demonstrates that some areas of pedagogy were clearly missing from the RBP teaching and learning strategy. Within classroom delivery workshops, video/films, role play, work experience, simulations, and games did not feature. In the assessment regime there were no open book exams, peer assessments, product evidence, or peer observations. These findings aligned with the dominant and verified four themes identified of pedagogy, curriculum, knowledge sharing and developing research enabled a list of recommendations to be formulated the by original fourteen managers and the researcher. The following Table 7.2 depicts the recommendations made for what only can be described as a new curriculum design for the RBP training Schools based on new knowledge. The table lists the areas for development extracted from the interview data and the evidence presented to justify those statements (qualitative statements from the Directors and Professors). Consequently a column has been inserted with suggested recommendations on which the design of a new curriculum was founded. At the end of the table are lists of learning, teaching and assessment methods. These are considered by the RBP to be new and innovative pedagogical methods. A small minority of interviewees reported that these methods had been used in the past, but there was no supporting evidence to demonstrate that they had ever been used, or their use contemplated in the RBP curriculum. The highlighted nature of the methods therefore signified the importance of incorporating them into a newly designed curriculum for the RBP.

Table 7.2 Romanian Border Police Recommendations for the Design of a Training Curriculum for Training Schools.

AREA FOR DEVELOPMENT	EVIDENCE (Qualitative statements from School Personnel and findings from questionnaires and interviews)	RECOMMENDATION FOR INCLUSION IN CURRICULUM
ASSESSMENT	• Didn't always have formal moderation and not always sure of the point of this • Assessment is all about formal 'knowledge' • Majority assessment seemed to be written, exams and tests and often MCQ • Little self assessment of trainees • Thought they would be fair and consistent without any criteria. • Weighting of tariffs geared towards exams. • Danger that the range statements are not tested where competence is used.	**Developing a full range of assessment mechanisms to aid learning**
CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	• No evidence of a formalised system for constructing CPD or standardised documentation for recording it.	**Constructing CPD and building skills for independent learning**
CURRICULUM DESIGN	• No attention to diversity and limited attention to human rights as being embedded in the content of the curriculum.	**Could incorporate an awareness of this in the training curriculum**
FEEDBACK TECHNIQUES	• Limited individual feedback • Feedback often not written. • Practice of giving feedback varied across Schools	**Theory and practice of giving constructive feedback to trainees. Use of recursive and formative feedback**
IT	• Computer assisted learning – knowledge of.	**Introduction to web based learning technologies such as blogs for learning**
PEDAGOGICAL	• New methods of teaching wanted	**Introduction to a range of**

METHODS	• Standardisation to ensure consistency of delivery • General improvement of training methods • Training in interactive methods • Creating models of learning and analysis Using a variety of pedagogical methods in the classroom • Tools and techniques wanted • Experience of training methods overseas wanted • Develop the classroom teaching methods e.g. case studies • Team teaching • Knowledge of a variety of methods • Active participation in learning • Brainstorming methods	**innovative and interactive training methods**
REFLECTIVE TECHNIQUES	• Only one School using Personal development journals, diaries, learning logs • No reflective reports by students	**Theory and practice of reflective techniques for professional development**
REVIEW	• Informal reviews • Infrequent reviews • No records of reviews Lack of evidence of the review process and no uniform approach to this, other than in Oradea where the QA committee does it all. • Didn't see evidence of report on cohort analysis	**Development of peer review process for professors and trainers to build on the manager/professor/ trainer teaching observation**
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TRADITIONAL AND	• Evidence of some confusion with the differences, and also the difference between writing	**Introduction to the difference between 'teaching' and 'training' and the theory that**

COMPETENCY BASED LEARNING	objectives and competencies	**underpins this**
ANALYTICAL METHODS	• Analytical methods wanted	**Incorporate in training programme**
PROBLEM SOLVING	• Problem Solving techniques wanted	**Incorporate in training programme**
MOTIVATION THEORY	• Motivation issues for trainees • Motivation of the trainers • How to encourage experienced people to join the training school	**Incorporate motivation theory in programme??**
TRAINING WITHIN INDUSTRY (TWI)	• No evidence of TWI task breakdown with the practical training. Interactive teaching methods	**Incorporate in training programme.**
360 Degree Appraisal	• 360 Degree Appraisal training wanted	**Incorporate in training in programme??**

Source: Author Devised (2009)

A question remained unanswered from the research findings. What can be deduced from those outstanding themes in phase one not mapped in the first stage at phase two? The outstanding themes were K1 New Knowledge, K4 Innovation, K5 Change and Development, K7 Developing Ideas, K8 Thinking Space, K9 Modernisation, and K14 Sustainability. The unmapped themes were analysed and discussed with the managers and a plausible explanation lies in the following reasons. The RBP managers were recording journal entries reflecting, most of the time, events at a more strategic/macro level rather than the specific School level, therefore, themes such as Modernisation, Change and Development, and Sustainability will feature as part of the managers' discourse in the process. Creating 'new knowledge' was the purpose of phase one research and this was very much about the managers' involvement in the process that others in the organisation were not aware of, giving an explanation for its nonappearance in phase two. Finally the notion of developing ideas, innovation, and thinking space were again specific to what we as co-inquirers

had been making judgements on over the research period. Something the School personnel would not be aware of and consequently did not mention.

7.4 Elaboration

The following sections presents the outcomes of an emergent conceptualisation of knowledge creation. It is therefore presenting a synthesis of the findings from both phases of research, and demonstrates how the research questions of:

If so how was new knowledge utilised and implemented?

Can Knowledge creation for sustainable OCD in transitional contexts be expressed in the form of a conceptual process model?

New knowledge was utilised and amplified to develop the organisation through the design of a new curriculum using pedagogical methods previously unknown to the RBP.

The findings presented in the previous section enabled the RBP to design a new programme for educating professors/trainers and managers about new pedagogic techniques. Hence the elaboration stage consisted of the design and delivery of a tailored training programme as appropriate for the RBP environment. The programme was designed by the researcher and the fourteen original senior managers. As stated, the design was based on the findings from both phases, and the design was careful to include all the areas highlighted for development and in particular those italic highlighted areas of learning, teaching and assessment methods from the previous table. After consultation with the RBP executive a one week programme was designed. This was considered manageable from a RBP operational perspective, and could be accommodated. Taking the Professors and Trainers out of the Schools for longer than a week would have been too disruptive to normal RBP work patterns. Careful consideration of the content of the programme was given and designed around the recommendations found in Table 7.2 under 'Recommendations for inclusion in curriculum'. The design of this programme can be found in Table 7.3 and was an intensive one week course. The delivery of the programme took place in the RBP training schools as detailed in the

last chapter. It was not possible for the researcher to deliver the programme without assistance, and three University lecturers were invited to work on the delivery to achieve the target of training the 150 RBP Professors in the time period. Table 7.3 details the content of the skills development programme for incorporating new pedagogy. The planned sessions in the table illustrate those areas positively lacking in the training schools such as 'Writing behavioural objectives and creating competencies' all related to curriculum and pedagogical methods.

Table 7.3 ROMANIAN BORDER POLICE: SKILLS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME 2008

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
Welcome/Introductions Course orientation Programme Rationale Icebreaker Expectations activity Briefing for activity	Theory and practice of Systematic analytical training Task and skills analysis	Feedback techniques Theory and practice of giving and receiving constructive feedback to peers and trainees.	Using and critiquing Interactive pedagogical methods	Expectation Revisited Course Evaluation Sharing reflective learning from CPD journal Action Planning
Introduction to EU aligned competence based learning	Systematic analytical training application	Dealing with the affective domain in training	Principles and practice of innovative and effective assessments	Dispersal
Learning Learning theory and reflective learning Domains of learning Learning styles	Planning training Writing behavioural objectives and creating competencies	Individual demonstrations and feedback	Awareness raising of computer assisted pedagogy Show and tell	

Motivation issues in competency based learning Individual and group learning	Preparation time for individual activity	Individual demonstrations and feedback Debrief	Computer assisted learning;- practical workshop	
Complete CPD Journal Homework Tutorials	Complete CPD Journal Homework Tutorials	Complete CPD Journal Homework Tutorials	Complete CPD Journal Homework Tutorials	

Source:Author Derived (2009)

7.5 Embedding knowledge

It is the final embedding stage which demonstrates the utilisation of new knowledge and answers the research questions of implementation of new knowledge in the RBP training the process, and also demonstrated that knowledge creation for sustainable OCD in transitional contexts be expressed in the form of a conceptual process model. A facilitative workshop was designed by the researcher to help the delegates work with their colleagues to meet the aims of this final phase. Formal inputs were minimised to maximise the time spent engaging in discussion and group activities to produce the action plan for future implementation and sustainability. Sustainability is used in this context to demonstrate that the RBP have the means to solve their own internal problems and are able to respond to change and implement organisational change and development as appropriate. As mentioned early on in chapter four on culture, historically the RBP's strategy was to achieve high performance. High performance is the metric by which they were measured for success. However, according to Hamlin (2007:95) 'delivering consistence and sustainable high performance is easier said than done', and is achieved through the maintenance of three main factors; ability, motivation and environmental factors. It is not enough to achieve high performance at a point in time with contemporary organisational pressures, particularly with the fast pace of change. The main concern for an organisation is to sustain high performance in the face of both internal and external challenges, a trait especially important given the current economic climate in the EU, and the

increasing pressures on the RBP in a newly developed Europe. Therefore, organisations need 'know how'. What organisation knowledge should employees have to achieve this? Buytendijk (2006:29) states those organisations that can sustain performance over time:

> *'Achieve a high level of agility so that they can identify change and respond optimally – or, even better, set the pace for change within their industry'.*

De Waal's (2006:12) definition of high performance also highlights the importance of being able to sustain performance over time and emphasises the importance of people and their knowledge to be able to do this.

> *'A high performance organisation is an organisation that achieves results that are better than those of its peer group over a longer period of time, being able to adapt well to changes and react to these quickly, by managing the long term, by setting up an integrated and aligned management structure, by continually improving its core capabilities, and by truly treating the employees as its main asset'.*

Running simultaneously were ongoing meetings with the RBP and consisted of managers from phase one of this research for continuity. The programme for stage three in assisting the working group to design and produce a new curriculum, and produce an action plan for implementation, was designed by the researcher. The programme was written to ensure that the focus of a competency based curriculum was maintained with the Frontex standards in mind. A facilitative workshop was designed to help the delegates work with their colleagues to meet the aims of this final phase. Formal inputs were minimised to maximise the time spent engaging in discussion and group activities to produce the action plan for future implementation. The programme content can be found in table 7.4. The aims of the programme were;

- For delegates to work cooperatively from a variety of perspectives to begin to create and plan for a new competence based core curriculum for the Romanian Border Police.

The workshop was written so that at the end of the programme delegates would be able to;

- Examine, analyse and evaluate a section of their own training curriculum against standards of best practice
- Initiate a comprehensive mapping exercise of their respective curriculum for future development
- Produce a relevant action planning for implementation.

The programme was held from 15- 17 July 2008 at Poiana Brasov, Romania. Holding the workshop in this central location made it easily accessible to all, and its seclusion ensured no interruptions. The workshop generated the data for an action plan on the next stage of modernisation for the RBP and completed the activities in this research.

Table 7.4 demonstrates the strategic nature of the programme, and how this phase was more about strategic implementation via a detailed action plan, and how this could be continually improved and made sustainable for the future.

Table 7.4 Strategy enabling programme

DAY 1	DAY 2	DAY 3	DAY 4
	Theoretical model for competence based curriculum development	Continuation of group Activities	Creation of central and individual school action plans and strategy, Identifying barriers to implementation
Arrival of Delegates Check-in	Group activity diagnosing gaps in current curriculum	Formal presentation of findings from the group activities	Evaluation activity Close of programme

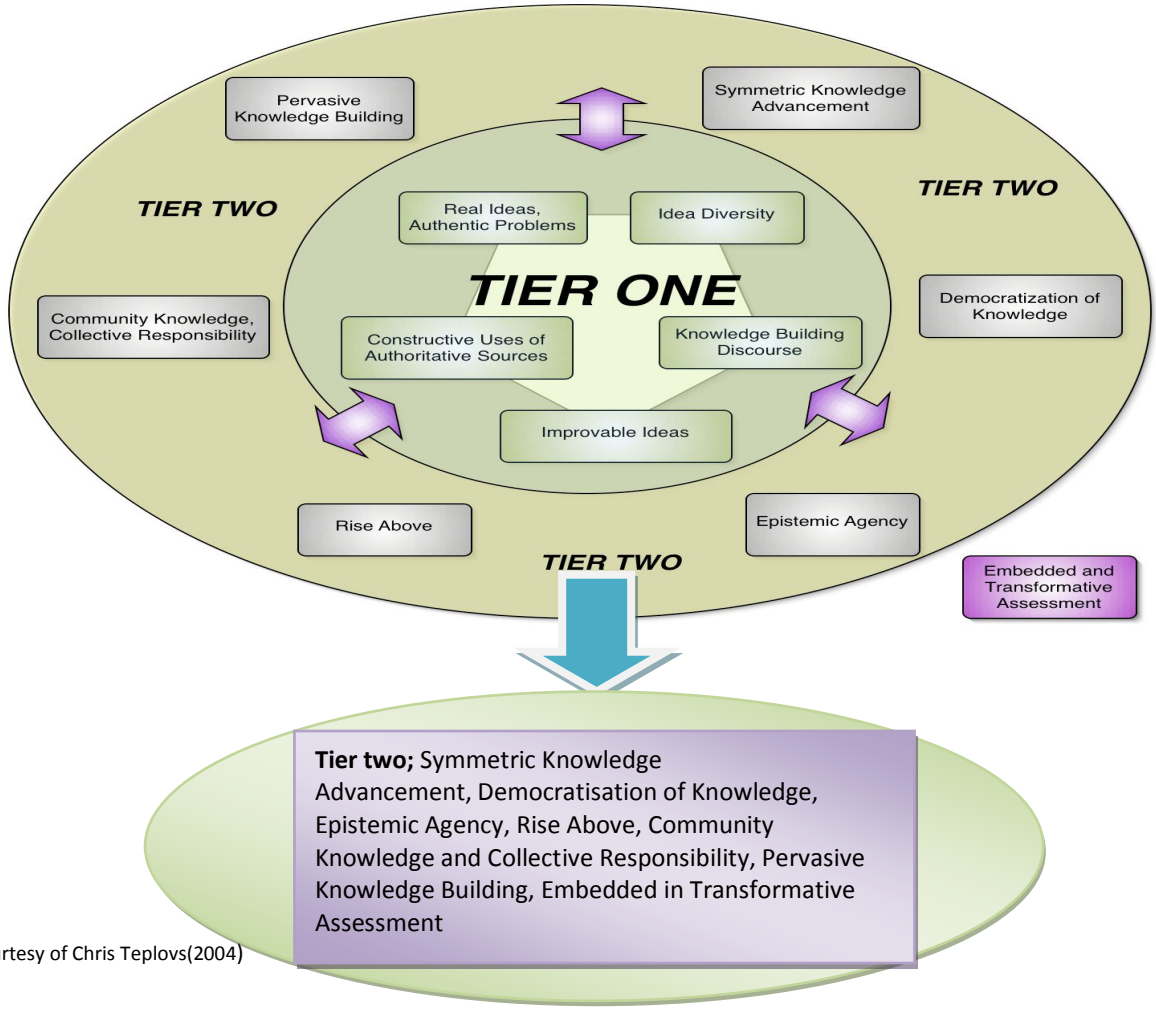
	design and development		
Welcome and introduction to programme Programme Objectives and outline Icebreaker Group expectations	Group activity critiquing own school curriculum against standards of good practice as outlined by Frontex philosophy	Group activity mapping the whole school curriculum against the theoretical model Presentation of mapping exercise	
Overview of Phase 1 and 2 of the project in relation to a competency based curriculum and high performing organisations			

7.6 Theoretical Knowledge Building Principles of Phase Two

The theoretical premise on which new knowledge was implemented correlates with tier two knowledge building principals as illustrated in Figure 7.4 as follows.

The first five principles of tier one were achieved in phase one as discussed in chapter six. The following principles were demonstrated through the following actions and illustrate how knowledge building principles of Bereiter and Scardemalia were achieved and applied.

Figure 7.4 Knowledge Building Principles; Tier Two



Source:Courtesy of Chris Teplovs(2004)

6. ***Symmetric Knowledge Advancement***; after the knowledge building phase the data collected was verifiable through phase two. This enabled the improvement and refinement of ideas and understandings. The knowledge of the group developed symmetrically, including that of the researcher.
7. ***Democratisation of knowledge;*** the knowledge building community were free to explore their own ideas without explicit direction from the researcher. The researcher was able to step aside after the initial stage (first two collaborative meetings). The functioning of the group and the knowledge produced tended to become democratised with all group members being treated as equal to or better than that of the researcher, or even those of authoritative sources.
8. ***Epistemic Knowledge;*** this refers to the ideas of the managers being taken to a triangulation stage, where their ideas acted on as the next line of inquiry for the research. The original themes further informed a second phase of inquiry and as explained earlier on in this chapter, through this the themes of curriculum

design, pedagogic methods, developing research and knowledge sharing, were identified as areas of strategic importance for the organisation. The creation of this knowledge was a collective product of a creative team which ought to have been recognised by the RBP strategic management team long before the advent of this research.

9. ***Rise Above***; is a reference to the group attempting to transcend current models of thought and ideas (current organisation practice) to create new and original ideas. This is something that was prevalent in the minds of the managers, as the research exercise was to create knowledge to bring about organisation change. According to Bereiter and Scardamalia this often involves a synthesis of current ideas and information into the development of something new and original. Ultimately, the new ideas emanating from the managers informed the development of an OCD programme for the RBP.
10. ***Community Knowledge, Collective Responsibility****;* at the end of phase one the managers took the responsibility of improving their knowledge of the organisation through the ideas they had generated, and also advanced the knowledge of the community by externalising what they had learned to a more public forum available to others (phase two research extending to the Training Schools).
11. ***Pervasive Knowledge Building;*** when the managers had firmly grasped the concept that ideas are improvable, the potential for developing knowledge further was unbounded. Eventually they tended to see everything as potentially improvable. This spilt over into other aspects of their lives such as their own professional development and potential for carrying out research, and was reflected in the programme designed for the Senior Executive of the organisation. Table 7.4 illustrates the ***design*** of a programme for a 'strategy enabling process'. This could only have been achieved through improvable ideas.
12. ***Embedded and Transformative Assessment;*** this happened at the end of phase two research and is demonstrated through the ***delivery*** of a 'strategy enabling process' and the formulation of a strategic action plan to constantly review and improve the strategic plan. Embedded and transformative assessment is shown as an external principle to the two tiers. This is as a consequence of the constant

action on both tiers at all times during the knowledge building process, and helps provide feedback into the system as described by Gloor (2006) writing on self-organising systems.

These principles have been encapsulated in the knowledge building carried out with the RBP. Tier one principles appeared at the start of the research in phase one, and tier two ideas appeared in this second phase.

In summary, the fourteen core themes found in phase one were taken back into the training schools and further research carried out to verify their validity. Seven of the fourteen themes complimented the data collected in phase two and were used to inform the design of an appropriate programme concerning pedagogical methods and techniques for the RBP training Schools. The final activity in this research process was to assist the strategic board members to write up a strategic action plan for incorporating the newly designed workshop on pedagogy into the schools curriculum.

CHAPTER 8

Conclusion and Discussion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter draws the thesis to a close by presenting a summary and conclusions, which bring together the main findings, as well as identifying the originality of approach, the implications and wider significance of the research, its limitations and potential for further development.

This thesis set out to develop an original approach to the aim of designing a knowledge building framework in a cross-cultural context for organisation development and change purposes, as opposed to the implementation of Western knowledge transfer models and frameworks that have not, in many cases been a suitable 'fit' for post-communist organisations. This thesis, therefore, explores the reflective capabilities of the Romanian Border Police managers to reveal how they can create knowledge for organisational change and development in preparation for EU accession, through a process of what later became understood as sharing knowledge (by the researcher and RBP managers). A framework for facilitation emerged using the original research of Geppert and Clark (2002) as a foundation for the ideas for conducting the research. This framework moves away from traditional models of knowledge transfer to further develop the changing dimensions of training interventions in the EE as argued for by Michaelova and Hollinshead (2009). At the time of starting this research the aim was to depart from the claims of existing literature on the effectiveness of knowledge transfer from the West to Eastern Europe, and takes a more radical view on how collaborative co-inquiry with partners can bring about knowledge creation as a more sustainable and significant approach for organisational change. The KBC model of Bereiter and Scardamalia was applied for the facilitation of creating new knowledge with the RBP managers, and the results explained at the end of chapters six and seven.

The research demonstrates through the literature the ineffectiveness of traditional EU-funded knowledge transfer projects. At the time of starting, the aims of this research were very revalent to the RBP who were endeavouring to achieve systems, processes and procedures fit for EU inclusion (Romania becoming an accessed country in 2007). The research was developed from a broad perspective, and contextualised the approach by highlighting the literature on research into how organisations have formed and changed in Eastern Europe with the advent of post-

socialism since 1990. In Romania the evolutionary landscape morphed into a compromise between the old and new Europe, and the RBP looked to the West to help 'modernise', and for those countries seeking EU accession the 'modernisation' process became a scramble for aid to help facilitate this. Research on organisations (Habermas 1990, Van Maanen 1995, Clegg and Hardy 1999, Bradbury and Lichenstein 2000, Pugh 2007) have catalogued the scale of the dilemma of the post-socialist condition, and the size of the gap that needed to be closed if the former socialist economies were to modernise and catch up with Western societies. The evolutionary state of many East European organisations has very much depended on the support sought from the West, and in consequence how the West has responded. The array of funding mechanisms made available by the EU, and how these have been implemented, has come under much scrutiny and condemnation, as presented in Chapter 3.

To recap, the response to the plight of those organisations in need of assistance has fallen short of expectations (Wedel 2000, Michailova and Hollingshead 2006). The literature overwhelmingly demonstrates a failing of the West to understand the needs of post-socialist organisations in the process of change and development. Moreover research reveals an insensitivity of cultural differences and 'a western arrogance' (Soulsby and Clark 2007). The general approach has been to 'transplant assistance', and according to Wedel (2000) there has been in many cases no connection between 'donors and recipients'. Wedel goes further to state there has been no thought gone into EU funded projects;

> 'the circumstances in which both are operating, and the goals of each side critically shape the assistance recipients get, how they respond to it, and the impact of the funds. Yet those factors are typically overlooked: little attention is generally paid to how fund is implemented and how it actually works'. (Wedel 2000:409)

In the Romanian context, PHARE were responsible for providing the funds for development of member states. The EU PHARE *project database* (European commission enlargement, nd*)* catalogues the available projects for funding, and

exposed some inconsistencies that were developed by the applicant countries to attract funding, with the terms of reference set out by PHARE. They contain the micro policy records of how budgets were spent. They reveal a plethora of knowledge transfer projects with the same outcomes, and with no ongoing evaluation to establish whether the project was implemented effectively and worked for the organisation concerned.

The opening chapter affirmed that for those organisations receiving funding for knowledge exchange projects there is recognition that knowledge is not something that can be given and received (Cheng et al., 2006), within the context of aid from Western European/US organisations to Eastern Europe organisations, and particularly through the use of didactic methods, where knowledge is seen as 'parcels of aid'. This research has highlighted that previous knowledge transfer processes implemented have not acknowledged the diverse cultural factors involved in the complex process of research in assisting organisations to create new knowledge. These factors include, the organisational setting or sector, the size, complexity and diversity of social networks involved, the type of social interactions that occur, the ways in which information is presented, the impacts of different cultural backgrounds of those people sharing information, power relationships and the extent to which individuals are in conflict with one another, and the past experiences, perceptions and expertise of those involved (Phillipson and Liddon, 2006; Jacobson, 2007; Ingram, 2008). The desired outcome and overall goal also affects the way in which a knowledge exchange process might be designed and implemented. Knowledge exchange is known to take place through informal networks and knowledge transfer can occur through formalised and depersonalised forms of communication (Hubacek et al., 2006; Prell et al., 2008; Reed et al., 2010). Moreover, the formal framework for cross cultural knowledge transfer Geppert and Clark advocate has been ignored. To address the disconnect between the rhetoric and reality of EU-funded knowledge transfer programmes this research has sought to demonstrate that through developing a suitable framework a means of creating useful organisation knowledge can be found.

At the core of this research has been 'knowledge creation', therefore, the literature reviewed on cross-cultural knowledge transfer and knowledge building in chapter two presents what this means in an organisation context, and stresses the role and importance of knowledge for change, development and sustainability. This research has adopted an interdisciplinary approach determined by the research design to include, social science, history and the study of organisations and management. Broadly this research has shown that it is possible to assist organisations to develop by creating an appropriate framework for knowledge building. Knowledge building with the RBP required new understandings of working in different paradigms, with new models through communal work in the manner of a research community. A particular strength of knowledge building is that the theory informs the practice, and this has been proven with the RBP. The research has set about designing a framework which ignores the notion of 'transplanting development assistance' in the form of established University courses (and modules), and looks towards a sustainable means of developing organisation knowledge by facilitating a process through co-collaborative research. Chapter two also highlighted the use of two principles: epistemic agency and knowledge building discourse. This was revisited in Chapter six and seven. Epistemic agency has been achieved by developing the individual and collective responsibility for development of knowledge where participants set forth their ideas and negotiate a fit between personal ideas and those of others for the purpose of advancing individual and organisational knowledge. This has successfully been achieved through the facilitation of the twelve principles of knowledge building advocated by Bereiter and Scardamalia.

8.2 Summary of Thesis by Chapters

The thesis was developed in eight chapters, of which five chapters build on the core arguments of this work concerning knowledge building. Chapter three is an historical chapter contextualising the current position of the RBP in Romania and Europe. The Introduction and the conclusion analyse the outcome and method of the research.

Chapter one introduced more specifically the driver for the research as the study of knowledge transfer in a cross-cultural context, and explained the failings of PHARE-funded projects to secure meaningful training opportunities for EU applicant countries such as Romania. It briefly outlines how the literature recognises the failing and the arrogance of those involved who thought transferring knowledge was a quick fix and an easy way of making money. This research has offered an alternative to the traditional view of transplanting knowledge to developing EU countries by facilitating a process for the development of organisational knowledge in a different cultural context. Cross-cultural knowledge transfer was also discussed and the EU contrition to cross-cultural knowledge projects over a number of years (Kuckinke, 2008). **This is followed by the research framework and introduces the development of a model of knowledge creation across cultures, incorporating the concept of a knowledge building community**. This chapter also explains how the research was conducted in two phases, with the use of collaborative co inquiry methods for data collection in phase one, analysed by NVIVO, and phase 2, and concludes with the research **questions and the thesis structure.** The chapter introduces the RBP and the managers and their involvement in this research. What is made clear in chapter one is the researcher was not expecting to be presented with definitive 'findings' or 'answers'. It has been more about the emergence of a process by which knowledge was created, with the RBP. The chapter ends with a presentation of the research questions and an overview of the chapters to follow.

Chapter two entitled 'knowledge, knowledge management, knowledge transfer and creation in a cross-cultural context' explores the nature of knowledge and considers current theoretical discussion of the conceptualisation of knowledge, and learning in the process of knowledge transfer, building, and management learning. It sets the scene for the subsequent chapters and contextualises this doctoral research, by presenting an overview of the growing importance of knowledge in organisations, and conceptualisations of knowledge. The chapter presents a discussion on alternative theories of knowledge transfer, and goes on to consider knowledge transfer in a cross-cultural context. In short, the chapter presents a synopsis of the

cross-cultural knowledge transfer literature in various organisational contexts. The number of theories, models and ideas presented in the literature are plethoric. What is clear from the literature and is most significant for this research is that over the last decade EU-funded knowledge training intervention from West to East has seen a definite shift in status. The literature presents the narrowing status differential between Western trainers and local participants and an increasing sophistication in the EE managers, who see the notion of Western funded knowledge transfer programme as patronising. The move to a more participative/collaborative approach is emerged where indigenous managers want to inject elements of their own organisation knowledge into a project, eradicating the former dictatorial methods of Western consultants.

Chapter three entitled 'Romania, borders, transition and the EU' contextualises the research, and looks at those aspects of Romania that are especially important in understanding its recent development and locating the institutional development and mission of the Romanian Border Police within this research. It draws on the current literature concerning firstly Romania, and puts forward the argument that like other 'Eastern Europe' states was a late developing nation. Secondly, that it developed in a border zone characterised by instability, and population movement; thirdly that Romania has struggled to create a modern social and economic structure and fourthly, that nationalism has been a prominent feature of its development. Fifthly, Romania has been characterised by considerable political instability; and sixthly and finally, that the Romania (like other 'border' areas in Europe) has always had an ambiguous relationship with 'Western Europe' and that this has been continued into its more recent relationships with the European Union. In the later sections of the chapter the funding sources available to an aspiring accession country available for supporting failed Western knowledge transfer programmes from PHARE were explored. This chapter presents the wider context of this research and is necessary as an explanation for the many PHARE projects the RBP were awarded.

The aim of **Chapter four** was to hone in, and explore the cultural context of an emergent Eastern European economy and to examine, in particular, notions of how

national culture impacts on knowledge building in Romanian organisations, and specifically within the RBP. Consideration has to be given to the complexities of cultural differences, and the limitations these present when conducting research into cross-cultural knowledge transfer. It was difficult to separate definitions of culture, nationalism, and identity. The Chapter presents the researcher's perception of the RBP culture by applying a number of theoretical frameworks of analysis. Here the co-inquirers were also asked to give their impression of the RBP culture. Both views were synthesised to help understand the cultural context in which the research was taking place. It was originally anticipated that cultural differences would impact significantly when analysing the data generated from this research but this was less an issue as the research unfolded. This chapter was of particular importance in applying the ideas of Geppert and Clark (2002) who emphasise that an examination of culture is the starting point for any collaboration, training or research programme.

Chapter five presented the methodological choice and considerations for addressing the research questions as outlined in chapter one. The rationale for adopting the research methods were presented in two phases. In phase one a collaborative co-inquiry approach was adopted working closely with managers using qualitative research methods for the data collection and analysis. The data collected was through the use of journals using critical reflective methods and the chapter details how this was introduced and implemented. For phase two qualitative research methods were deployed for the purpose of collecting relevant data. This chapter explains how the research methods were employed.

Chapter six brings coherence to the many themes emerging from this research. It presents the academic findings and emphasises the wider context of the research in terms of the process, and the generated knowledge created for sustainable OCD. Furthermore, the findings demonstrate the complex nature of the research, and the many strands and methods of data collection to elicit the information needed to assist the organisation in their long-term strategic aims. This research was carried out over two distinct phases, as detailed in the previous chapter, and the findings were presented under two distinctive Chapters. Phase one presents findings about

the appropriateness of the knowledge building framework, findings from managers ongoing insights on the process of critical reflection, and findings from the interviews and journal analysis (knowledge created). Phase two presented the developed model of validation and implementation by the researcher.

The findings in phase one emanated from three strands of the collaborative co-inquiry, and was presented in three distinct sections of this chapter;

1. Findings from the framework
2. Findings from manager's insights on the process of Critical Reflection
3. Findings from the Interviews and Journal Analysis

Fourteen main themes were identified from the coded data. The qualitative findings from these are presented and explored. The theoretical ideas on which knowledge was created corresponded strongly to the constructivist ideas of Bereiter and Scardamalia. This research was identified as situated within their theory of KB. Tier one KB principles are shown in figure 6.7 and were demonstrated by the managers at the beginning of the KB process as follows. Hence phase one research started with a blank canvass and concluded with the main themes on which to concentrate for further development, and proved that that the theoretical KB principles could and had been applied. What is more remarkable is that findings from phase one presented the focal point for further development located in the RBP training schools. This transpired as the findings converged.

Chapter seven is the second of two findings chapters. Phase two presented the developed model of validation and implementation. To verify that the statements of the managers and ensure they were well founded, a detailed research regime consisting of three stages was conducted as outlined in the methodology chapter. These methods served to triangulate the data. Triangulation is a powerful technique that facilitates validation of data through cross verification from more than two sources and gives a more detailed and balanced picture of the situation (Denzin 2006). The findings from phase two research would give a definitive set of data enabling the design of an appropriate knowledge transfer intervention designed by the researcher and the managers. This Chapter also presents the technical detail in designing and implementing an appropriate knowledge transfer intervention based

on the mapping of emergent themes from Phase one and two. This training intervention was less significant than the process but was the result of the work done with the managers. The site for the above activity had already been established in phase one as being that of the RBP training Schools.

8.3 Synthesis of main findings

The main finding from this thesis is that it is possible to develop an appropriate workable framework for the development of new knowledge, and to better assist the process of organisational development with a group of managers, whose culture had not previously been exposed then to the concept of a KBC. Furthermore, the new knowledge was used to inform an appropriate internal development course for the organisation to formulate an effective and appropriate strategic plan for sustainability and succession planning. To achieve the research aims of developing epistemic agency and knowledge building discourse through the individual and collective responsibility for development of knowledge the framework assisted the RBP managers to set forth their ideas, and negotiated a fit between personal ideas and those of others, for the purpose of advancing individual and organisational knowledge for OCD. The emergent framework was facilitated and operationalised through the creation of a knowledge building community using collaborative co-inquiry to better assist the organisation in generating knowledge. Organising the knowledge building community, and through the use of journals new knowledge was created. The research has demonstrated empirically Johansson's (2006) theories on the importance of what he terms intersectional ideas. This is a modern phenomenon in KBC, and created most often by the intersection of two different fields of expertise. He identifies three forces that can create such intersections. The movement of people creating cross-cultural intersections; the convergence of science creating intersections among different areas of science; and the leap in computational power creating new possibilities. Johansson states, 'Because the effect of these three forces are so pervasive, your understanding of a field is likely to become intersected many times during your lifetime. The individuals or teams who find these intersections are likely to be the ones who radically change our world' (Ibid p. 32).

In the opening chapter of this research it was made clear that the conclusions would not give any definitive answers, but more a presentation of processes and a framework developed to accommodate knowledge building in an organisation seeking to modernise and develop for EU accession. The sophisticated process was developed to ensure a move from simply transferring Western models and techniques to a system whereby the RBP were fully responsible and developing their own organisation knowledge. This was done by:

1. Creating an appropriate method of working with the managers- collaborative co-inquiry
2. Using appropriate methods to elicit the data, the use of meetings, journals, interviews, and encouraging critical reflection to enable quality meaningful data
3. Implementation of an appropriate method of triangulation
4. Analysing the data and coming up with important organisation knowledge
5. Designing a framework for facilitating the creation of new knowledge in the RBP
6. Designing a framework for using and implanting the knowledge
7. Facilitating and operationalising the process through the creation of a knowledge building community using collaborative co-inquiry to better assist the organisation in generating knowledge.
8. Organising and operationalising the knowledge building community, and through the use of journals created new knowledge.
9. More specifically, the outcome was the design of a new curriculum for the RBP.
10. Originally the intention was to demonstrate through the research the sustainable benefits of knowledge creation as opposed to knowledge transfer. Towards the end of the research it was realised that the concern with a collaborative co-inquiry approach and knowledge creation had under-emphasised the significance of knowledge sharing of the researcher and RBP managers. The dynamic of the researcher knowledge and collaborators should be recognised.

The original research questions have been addressed as follows:

How do Geppert and Clark's five factor framework, and Bereiter and Scardamalia's knowledge building community principles help facilitate the creation of new knowledge in the RBP?

In chapter six figures 6.2 and 6.3 illustrate the development of the framework and the operational aspects of creating new knowledge and its implementation into organisation practices. The process model became more sophisticated than was first anticipated. The framework was the basis on which the RBP knowledge building community was built, and illustrates the complexity of the process and its development from the original model. Indeed the initial model helped inform a more sophisticated process model to include the extent to which the new knowledge was implemented or integrated. This was omitted from Geppert and Clark's model, who concentrated on the framework for knowledge creation rather than its validation and integration. The developed framework for this research was a synthesis of the main ideas of Geppert and Clarke with Bereiter and Scardamalia's KB principles at the micro-operational level. This together with the interaction and experiences with the RBP produced a model of facilitation for the creation of new knowledge, and addresses the first research questions.

Over the last ten years research carried out on models of knowledge transfer feature largely in this research field to include that Tsoukas (2003), Holden and Kortzfleisch (2004), Burns and Paton (2005), Schulze and Hoegl (2011). Models of implementation and their practice are less prevalent, and virtually nonexistent in an Eastern European organisational context. Few researchers have focused their studies on both creation and integration; with the exception of Illes, Wong and Yolles (2004), and Alcorn (2010).This research has made a contribution in developing a conceptual process model of knowledge creation *Validation,* and *Implementation*. However, as this is not a longitudinal study the effectiveness and impact of the new knowledge is unknown.

How does collaborative co-inquiry and the use of journals in a specific organisational context better assist in knowledge generation and why?

Chapter 5 explained how the concept of a KBC would be applied through collaborative co-inquiry, to better assist the generating of knowledge. Chapter 6 demonstrated the facilitation and operationalisation of the process through the creation of a knowledge building community using the framework described in the previous question. Fostering the use of journals and ongoing meetings over a period of two years generated the data or new knowledge. A close examination of ways to foster creativity was demonstrated through the theoretical models presented in chapter 2. Epistemic agency and knowledge discourse has been achieved by developing the individual and collective responsibility for development of knowledge where participants set forth their ideas and negotiate a fit between a range of theoretical KB models that were introduced in Chapter 2, but were discounted for the Bereiter and Scardamalias KB principle. The theoretical findings of the KB process with the RBP managers concur with their theoretical model. Tier one principles are shown in figure 6.7 and were demonstrated by the managers at the beginning of the KB process as follows. Tier two of this theory was applied and discussed in chapter 7.

What new knowledge, if any, was created through collaborative co-inquiry?

This question was answered in chapter six and seven. In phase one data was collected from two sources. This was analysed and presented as new knowledge. The data generated derives from two main sources: Managers' Journal entries from collaborative working, and transcribed semi-structured interviews with each individual manager at the end of phase one. The relevance is in the key words used to describe the perceived needs of the organisation to enable them to facilitate and bring about change. The key themes were analysed systematically to reveal the significant findings. The method used was that purported by Stemler (2001) where content analysis

is defined as a systematic replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories. This was achieved through the use of the NVIVO database. The data was presented in a table with pertinent illuminating statements selected to demonstrate significant issues. The newly created knowledge was eventually used to inform a training programme for the RBP senior management. Rather than adopt a previously created University programme (such as modules from a management Diploma or an MBA),

If so how was new knowledge utilised and implemented?

A unique programme was created on the information generated by the managers through new knowledge as presented in Chapter 7. The development of this process involved the presence of those RBP managers who are likely to become innovators in the organisation for generated further knowledge for organisation sustainability.

Can Knowledge creation for sustainable OCD in transitional contexts be expressed in the form of a conceptual process model?

Knowledge was created, utilised and implemented as answered in the two previous questions. This resulted in a conceptual process model as illustrated in Chapter six under Figure 6.2. This explains the process with the RBP in phase one and two and the methods used.

8.4. Originality of approach, implications and wider significance

The originality of the thesis is primarily three fold. It has demonstrated the appreciation of knowledge building and collaborative co-inquiry within an Eastern

European context; it has developed a conceptual cross cultural process model of embedded sustainable knowledge creation; and has empirically demonstrated this mechanism as a workable and alternative process to traditional funded knowledge transfer programmes.

To elaborate due to the wide spectrum of disciplines covered in this thesis the conclusions and wider implications can be relevant to a number of disciplines. From the perspective of the study of knowledge building the thesis called for a re-evaluation of the methods used in EU-funded cross-cultural knowledge transfer programmes, and demonstrated a more effective system for designing sustainable courses. Another aspect of originality is the detail given on how a process can be developed for creating organisation knowledge in a post-communist organisation, and at the end of the research process offers a 'tried and tested' framework. Very little empirical work has been done on this subject, and no previous study has analysed the failings of knowledge transfer projects and what alternatives can be explored. Previous studies have dealt almost exclusively with programmes already designed by the West ready for transferring, rather than focusing on their transferability. The literature, therefore, tends to concentrate on the technical description of how a project is developed paying no attention to its relevance or usefulness to the organisation. Consequently, the thesis has demonstrated how we could begin to understand the needs of post-socialist organisations in the process of change and development (Michailova and Hollingshead 2001; Geppert and Clark 2004; Soulsby and Clark 2007) better, by designing an appropriate conceptual cross cultural process model of embedded sustainable knowledge transfer, rather than knowledge transplantation. This has been empirically demonstrated as an effective mechanism. This research therefore has shown that it is possible to use a hybrid of theoretical models to develop an appropriate process of knowledge creation for organisational sustainability and development. In this context the research has facilitated a process that has enabled the RBP to design a new aspect to its curriculum and embed this into the training school delivery as part of the strategy.

Another area of uniqueness of the research is in the appreciation of knowledge building and co-inquiry within an Eastern European context. The research was

carried out within a Romanian organisation, post-communist, public, ex-military, and overcame any adversity along the way. Having access to an organisation with this status and playing such an important role in European security was a great privilege. The original thoughts were to carry out research about the transferability of management tools and techniques in a cross-cultural context but there was already a wave of literature developing about the delivery of MBA's in Eastern European Countries and in particular those new to the EU, and consideration was given to approaching this research from a different angle emphasising knowledge creation, and picked up on the ideas of Geppert and Clark (2002), and Michailova and Hollinshead (2001, 2009) taking them further.

To recap, through the research a framework was developed to facilitate the creation of organisation knowledge that would better assist the organisation and was appropriate to the need, and this was a very important breakthrough conceptually. The framework developed and employed in the present study is a useful and powerful tool for future research as it permits a critical examination of the effects of non-effectual management training projects. In a wider context this research also offers the following contribution.

1. The research is imperative for the EU funding committees responsible for developing accession countries to reflect on the impact a different approach will make to the ongoing development of an organisation, and learn from the mistakes of PHARE.
2. Causes those inside, and possibly those outside, the community to see things differently;
3. Will influence future research and teaching in this field;
4. Has implications for and advances the field, the discipline, other disciplines, or society;
5. Has been of great interest to FRONTEX, the EU body responsible for border management in the EU.

The research undertaken has already been presented in four conference papers. Other findings are to be disseminated through publication of articles and possibly a co-authored book.

One of the most significant developments emanating from this research was an invitation to attend the European conference on Border Management as a guest speaker in 2010 as a result of the research already carried out with the RBP. The first European Conference for Border Guards took place in Warsaw on 25 May 2010 to celebrate the fifth anniversary of the foundation of Frontex. The conference title was 'The future of the border management in Europe and the role of Frontex'. This research coincided with a directive from Brussels for Frontex to develop border police competences for patrolling police and border managers at all levels. The paper presented from this research was entitled 'Giving professional legitimacy and profile to the border police career', and focused on the multidisciplinary nature of the subject knowledge as a basis for a 'professional' border police, and how this knowledge has been democratically decided through the knowledge building community facilitated by Frontex. Moreover, the conference raised questions on how can professional status be developed with the degree of flexibility needed to accommodate cultural differences in developing Masters programmes for managers, and what is the future professional profile of the border guard, and does the profession want/need a lead body. The event aimed to strengthen and improve the European community of border guards by publicising the work of 400,000 border guards in Europe, providing a forum for discussion and the exchange of best practices (http://www.ed4bg.eu/2010).

8.5. Limitations of the study

The most obvious limitation in carrying out the research was the distance between the researcher and managers. It was frustrating waiting between visits to meet the managers and find out how they were progressing with their journals, but through emails frustration was overcome. Working in a different cultural context could have been a limiting factor but did not really present insurmountable problems. This was largely down to already having experience of Romanian culture, and having worked with the Romanian managers before the research began. The time difference was occasionally problematic. Romania work to EET (Eastern European Time), and are

two hours ahead of the UK. This inhibited mid-morning telephone conversations, due to their lunch period, and mid-afternoon conversation as they would be finishing for work.

The nature of the RBP work was also a limitation to the research, as visits were negotiated several times before a definitive date was set. Border problems often led to police manoeuvres requiring senior management involvement and meetings were cancelled.

All participating managers were fluent in English, but on occasion the Romanian interpretation of some words was different. This did not cause any problems but an awareness of the pitfalls of making assumptions was needed, and the consequences if not checked and clarified.

The semi-structured interviews and journals were crucial to the data collection phase and yielded exactly what was expected. Journal entries were however often brief and descriptive and it was essential to enable deeper reflective skills for them and this research, hence the emphasis on the importance of critical reflective practice in the methodology chapter. Evidence of critical reflective practice eventually began to emerge but it was hard work teasing out to get the quality of data that eventually came to fruition.

The interviews were taped and on listening back it was noted that sometimes the interview technique could have been a little more polished. In an attempt to simplify the questions for the managers, and make it more understandable, a word change was inserted, different from the words in the original question when repeating the question. This hindered and confused matters rather than helped. In future caution should be taken when doing this, and perhaps trialling an interview might be prudent.

Validity of the data was a major concern, and the importance was to demonstrate validity through triangulation. This became very difficult, and whilst carrying out phase two of the research the idea was nearly abandoned. In hindsight chapter 7

could have been refined or simplified, but there was no easy way of doing this at the time of writing!

In respect to the data analysis NVIVO was disappointing, and did not meet expectations. It was expected to do more than it did but acted merely as a receptacle for organising the data. The idea of using it for phase two was ditched after use on phase one, as it was as easy to code the data manually without the constraint of using the NVIVO package. Researcher skills in the use of NVIVO could have been developed further (a course was attended), and any criticism of the package could be more about researcher capability, rather than its usefulness in analysing data. As mainly an insider researcher working within the interpretive paradigm the data was open to bias and Bassey's (1999) recommendations were used to guide the process. Triangulation methods were implemented as stated in the previous paragraph to overcome bias.

8.6 Further Research beyond this Study

There are two main aspects of this research that could be developed further. Unfortunately it is outside the scope of this research to assess the success and sustainability of the knowledge building process for the RBP, but one possibility would be to revisit the RBP to discover what long term difference, if any, was made to the organisation. This research has highlighted the importance of allowing an organisation to take control of its own strategy by assisting them with frameworks for building knowledge that will be used to develop the organisation. One interesting development of this research would be to take the framework to another developing organisation within a different cultural context, and see how it translates and whether it works, and if not what modifications are needed, and why. Therefore the direction for future research is to go beyond a single case study.

Furthermore, it would be interesting to research into whether developing reflective practitioners really do make an impact on an organisation's approach to ideas and thinking, and whether the notion of critical reflective practice was used or developed further, or was cascaded to other managers in the RBP, and to what effect. The importance of building up a store of requisite knowledge, of validating

the newly created knowledge, of externalising tacit knowledge, and of allowing for a recursive process, is something to be further researched and developed.

Finally, the future of the EU is uncertain, with the current financial situation in disarray there will most certainly be a cap on the amount of funding available to assist future accession states. There will need to be a rethink on how funding is allocated, bid for, spent and evaluated. The notion of cross-cultural knowledge transfer will have to take on a new dimension. No longer will the 'fly in fly out' approach be workable if the money is to be spent wisely and effectively. Researchers and academics will be looking for a more sustainable and effective approach as this research has advocated. The future challenge for the EU in terms of giving financial assistance for developing organisations is to take a wider view on assisting them to develop organisation knowledge**.** Achieving these goals would include facilitation of a framework for creating organisation knowledge, perhaps using the process recommended through this research.

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Appendix 1

CRITICAL REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

Questionnaire for RBP Managers

1. What is your understanding of critical reflective practice?

2. Have you engaged in critical reflection since being involved in the research?

3. If you have engaged in critical reflection what was it you did and can you give an example of what you said?

4. How often have you engaged in critical reflection? Daily, weekly, occasionally? Please explain.

5. How valuable is critical reflection in the workplace?

6. Do you think critical reflection has transferability for assisting in the creation of new knowledge?

7. Does your organisation encourage critical reflective practice?

8. Is journal keeping something your organisation would encourage?

9. Would you engage more in this if the organisation gave you time?

10. How do you think critical reflection and journal keeping can help with your continuous professional development?

11. Should critical reflection be embedded into the ways things are done from induction right through to appraisal?

If you have any further comments to make on critical reflective practice please write in the space below

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.
Please return electronically to j.firth@wlv.ac.uk or hand it back to me on my next visit if not completed today.

Appendix 2

RBP Interview Questions Phase One

1. Could you begin by introducing yourself and providing a short account of your role and responsibilities in the RBP?

2. What has been your experience as a participant in this research?

3. Can you talk about the research process and your thoughts on journal keeping as a method of data collection?

4. Do you think the use of the journal has facilitated the opportunity for you to record aspects about the organisation that you weren't already aware of?

5. Would you say that this has helped in the knowledge creation process? If so what new knowledge has been created?

6. Can you explain how you think this new knowledge can be used to develop the organisation?

7. What were the most significant journal entries you made and why?

8. Can you elaborate on what the journal has revealed about the organisation that you weren't previously aware of?

9. Where there any specific aspects of the organisation that you repeatedly wrote about?

10. What in your view are the most significant changes that need to be made in your organisation, and why?

11. Do you consider that the RBP is ready for EU accession? Was this recorded in your journal?

12. To conclude, I wonder if you could put into words what contribution your journal records can help in developing the organisation to improve for EU accession?

    Do you have anything you would like to add or would like to ask me?

    Thank you very much for participating.

Appendix 3

Romanian Border Police
Questionnaire for Training School Personnel

Name _____ Name of School_____ Date_____

1. What do you perceive to be the major requirements for change and improvement in the RBP training schools?

2. What would you consider to be the current priority needs of this School and why?

3. Do you consider it difficult to bring about change?

4. What are the formal processes for bringing about changes to the curriculum in respect to courses, modules, and pedagogy?

5. Do you consider the current course provision in your school appropriate to the needs of the new border police recruits?

6. What Quality assurance mechanisms are in place for the monitoring of courses in this School?

7. Do you consider classroom pedagogical methods appropriate for this school?

8. Do you collaborate with the other Schools and compare practice?

9. What is the major modernisation challenge for the Schools in light of EU accession?

10. In order to improve what must:

    - Managers do better?

    - Professors do better?

    - Administrators do better?

11. What new knowledge is needed for Professors to improve practice?

12. State which of following themes are important for improving the Schools and why?

New Knowledge (knowledge creation)
Training system
Training Schools
Pedagogical method

Organisation change and development
New Curriculum
Developing ideas
Thinking space
Modernisation
Developing research
Changing methods of working in the Schools
Knowledge Sharing
Sustainability
Innovation

If you have any further comments please write below.

Thank you for completing the questionnaire. Please hand back to Janet Firth. A follow up interview will be held later to talk through some of your answers.

Appendix 4

Romanian Border Police

Phase Two

Follow up Interview of Training School Personnel

Name _____ School_____ Rank_____

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

1. Did you understand all the questions, if not please explain.

2. Can you please elaborate and your answers to question xxx? (Depending on whether the researcher wanted clarification)

3. Why do you think it's important to get your views on the training schools?

4. I would like to turn our attention to the fourteen themes in the questionnaire. Can you please tell me why you thought those you indicated are important?

5. Can you elaborate on what you said about theme xxx? (Depending on whether the researcher wanted clarification)

6. How can we utilise these themes to improve the schools?

7. How would you go about making improvements?

8. Do you consider this activity to be helpful to the organisation?

9. Finally, what is the single most import thing that needs to change in the schools?

10. Do you have any other comments?

Thank you for taking time to contribute to this research.